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CONSERVATIVE TACTICS.

IT is now pretty notorious that the bidding of Mr. Disraeli in the faction market is about to be taken up by the economists below the Ministerial gangway. The Manchester party propose to test the sincerity, and, if possible, to fix the conviction of the most recent, if not the most candid, converts to the doctrines of the "Three Panics." If the rumoured motion of Messrs. Stansfeld and Baxter ever ripens to a division, it will probably considerably "flutter your Volsces in Corioli." The Tory journals, with a versatility worthy of the Member for Bucks, have changed their hackneyed note of denunciation levelled against the Chancellor of the Exchequer for his secret alliance with Mr. Cobden to break down the defences of the country, into equally noisy objurgations of Lord Palmerston for what Mr. Micawber termed his "prompt and defensive" attitude. The organs of the Manchester party are already beginning to look out for arguments why they should receive into their bosom the repentant sheep of Toryism who have seen the error of their ways, and who, having consumed their living in riotous estimates, are now content to feed on the husks which are cast into the Radical trough. The real earnestness of purpose of the Radical economists is likely to put the sincerity of the Opposition converts to an awkward test. Mr. Disraeli only proposed to himself to seduce the Manchester maidens, and it now seems probable that he is about to be asked his intentions. What he meant only for an amour is on the point of taking the awkward form of marriage. There is a literal matter-of-fact downrightness about these uncultivated rustics of Lancashire which is likely to be very puzzling to the Lovelace of the Opposition benches. Mr. Stansfeld proposes to put up the banns, instead of kissing in a corner, and, lo! the ardent wooer shrinks from a tie which threatens to be more permanent than he could desire. So Mr. Disraeli will probably plead the want of consent on the part of his friends to an alliance which, on the whole, will turn out disadvantageous.

The truth is that Mr. Disraeli, in his new-born economy, is a little in advance of public opinion, and a good deal in advance of the sentiments of his own party. The Tory party is a very staunch pack who stick with great loyalty to their leaders; but, on the other hand, they require, above all things, that they should be allowed to run true. They have cashiered men of far greater standing and of much more eminent abilities than Mr. Disraeli, because they were perplexed by their vagaries and disgusted by their instability. They refused to be dazzled by Canning, and they would not be converted by Peel. And we shall be very much surprised if they consent to *pirouette* with Disraeli. The country gentleman class may not be very quick in its perception or logical in its ratiocination, but it has, on the whole, a very definite sense of honour and consistency, and the broad-brimmed top-booted squire does not readily adapt himself to the feats of a political acrobat in ringlets and flesh-coloured lights.

Under the guidance of Mr. Disraeli, the Conservative party seem about to commit, for a second time, the capital blunder for which they suffered so severely during the administration of Lord Derby. They are striving to grasp the reins of office by the help of allies with whom they have nothing in common, and by the profession of principles with which they have no sympathy. To this end, Mr. Disraeli vainly to trail Conservative Protestantism through the dirt in order to conciliate Catholic votes and to influence Irish elections. In order

to mitigate the hostility, and if possible to secure the support of the Radical leaders, he is compelled to hang out the flag of financial reform—a banner under which the Conservative party are not much more disposed to fight than that of Parliamentary Reform which was hoisted with as little success as sincerity by Lord Derby's last Government. The great object of the member for Bucks seems to be to construct an administration which is to rest on the two-legged stool of Manchester and Rome. And in so doing he is preparing for his party just such another course of humiliation as that which, twice before, under his auspices, they have endured. Since the Government of Sir R. Peel was broken up, the Conservative party has never acceded to office except under circumstances which have compelled it to throw overboard its most cherished principles in the struggle to preserve a precarious existence. Lord Derby's Government of 1852 lived just long enough finally to extinguish the cause of Protection, of which it was the professed champion. The Administration of 1857 pledged the Tories to reform. What are the sacrifices which remain to be extorted from the next Tory Government in a minority by the necessities of their situation?

Assume Mr. Disraeli's unwise and desperate scheme of combination to succeed, and before the end of the session Lord Derby to be installed in office. Suppose the friends of Mr. Cobden to have been conciliated by a promise of reduced establishments, and the support of The O'Donoghue and Mr. Pope Hennessy purchased by the pledge of an anti-Italian policy. On what principles, we should like to know, is such an Administration to be conducted so as to secure the steady assistance of the allies by whose aid its predecessors have been ejected? It is very easy in the course of an Opposition harangue to cast out vague intimations and to shadow forth opinions which it is not necessary to embody in practice. But when the responsibilities of office are assumed, the declamation against "bloated armaments" will be put to the test. How is the promise to be redeemed? Which are the regiments to be reduced? What colonies are to be abandoned? Is India to be weakened? Is Gibraltar to be dismantled? Then as to the navy. Are we to have a Channel fleet? Are the dock-yards to be deserted? Are no more iron ships to be built? Is Sir W. Armstrong's factory to be closed? These are points on which General Peel and Sir J. Pakington must await the instructions of Mr. Cobden. For, after all, the author of "The Three Panics" is logical enough, whether people agree with him or not. He calls for a reduction of expenditure, but then he points out how in his opinion it can be done. He wishes to pat off the colonies as a cat does its kittens when it no longer chooses to suckle them, and he hopes by an altered foreign policy to escape the necessity of self-defence. Let the Conservatives declare at once their sincere adhesion to these views, and they may have some chance of giving effect to reduction of expenditure, which they profess ardently to desire. They will no doubt secure the full support of Mr. Cobden; whether they will at the same time enjoy the confidence of the country is a matter which is not quite so certain.

Then, again, as to the Irish Papists. If their votes are wanted to place Lord Derby in office, their support will not be the less necessary to keep him there. Upon what conditions is their adhesion to be assured? It is easy enough in Opposition to talk of the independence of the Pope—the advantages of an Italian Confederation. But what is it, after all, that Lord Malmesbury, in the teeth of English opinion, will dare to do for the venerable client of Sir G.



Bowyer? He may, and no doubt would, as far as he could, throw cold water on the Italian cause. But he could not, even if he were not pledged to reduced armaments, send a fleet to Civita Vecchia to protect the triple crown. He might reproduce in despatches, more or less ungrammatical, the rhodomontade which we have heard from Mr. Disraeli on the advantages of the temporal power of the Pope. But revolutions are neither made nor extinguished with rose-water, and we venture to predict that the movement which is now advancing with irresistible progress in the Italian peninsula is not to be quenched by the "elegant extracts" of a Malmesbury. The promise of servility to the Emperor of the French, held out by Mr. Disraeli, is more easy of accomplishment. That Lord Malmesbury will conduct the foreign relations of the country in the same spirit with which he acted in the affair of the *Charles et Georges* is likely enough. The consequences will be an outburst of public feeling, which will resent, as a national affront, what our very weakness will have invited. The avowed policy of submission will be in itself a temptation to insult; and an indignant nation will find itself without the means of avenging a slight which the feebleness of its Government has provoked.

On the whole, we consider Mr. Disraeli's intrigue the worst possible speculation for all parties. For our part, though we have no hesitation in choosing the side to which our political allegiance is due, we have at the same time no difficulty in admitting that there is a very healthy action in the regular alternations of political power in the hands of the antagonistic parties. The Conservative party have a fair right to look to accession to office, if they are content to wait till they can have and hold it on terms consistent with their political creed. We are very much disposed to think that a really strong Conservative Government in power would supply the best possible corrective for the present somewhat dilapidated state of the Liberal party. But an administration nominally Tory, yet practically dependant on Papist and Radical support, would only aggravate the present unsatisfactory condition of political affairs. It would produce a state of things demoralizing to both parties alike, and a confusion of ideas and inconsistency of conduct equally perplexing and disgraceful.

THE FRENCH IN MEXICO.

THE French eagles are pursuing their solitary way from Orizaba to Mexico, and sowing broadcast among the population of the country those conventional proclamations of disinterestedness which are usual on such occasions. We know the formula employed, because we have seen it before. "Mexicans, we come not to make war upon you, but to ensure your independence." It is the invariable language that invaders address to the invaded. Thus Napoleon passed the Pyrenees, in order to respond to the legitimate aspirations of all honest Spaniards; and the Duke of Angoulême in 1823 only yearned for the repression of anarchy and the deliverance of Spain.

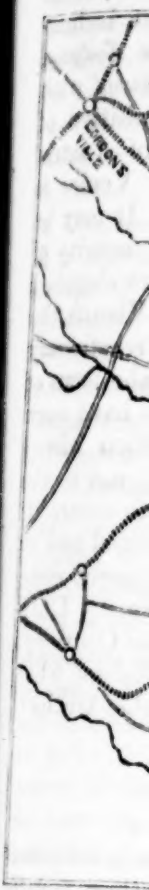
Judged by the letter and the spirit of the London Convention of last October, the French must stand convicted of a clear departure from the limits laid down at starting by the Allies. "The high contracting parties engage not to exercise any influence calculated to injure the right of the Mexican people freely to choose and constitute their own form of government." The presence of Almonte in the French camp was the first positive proof that France was not satisfied with this common programme. Juarez and his Ministry understood it as such, and their susceptibility in the opinion of Sir C. Wyke and General Prim was most justifiable. Honour itself could not require that the French should afford the shelter of their flag to a proscribed political rival of the *de facto* President. Since the withdrawal of the English and Spanish forces, Almonte has flung aside the mask. Under the auspices of M. de Saligny and Admiral Jurien de Lagravière, he invites the Mexicans to rally round him, and to join in forming a firm and stable government. French newspapers inform us—as might have been expected from them—that Mexico is preparing to answer the summons with enthusiasm. Five Mexican generals have issued a manifesto in his favour, and it is the evident intention of his generous protectors to proclaim him Provisional President in the place of Juarez, when the capital is reached and taken. Then the solemn farce of universal suffrage will be re-enacted, in all its glorious forms. Mexico will be invited to manifest her wishes,—the Republican party first having been beaten into silence; and the French flag will float over the ballot-boxes. These are no sinister and cynical predictions. There is absolutely no doubt that this is what is going to happen, and the Paris journals do not pretend that there is any secret to be kept. England, indeed, cannot complain that she is not forewarned. On the 11th of November last, the Cabinet of the Tuileries addressed some remarkable instructions to Admiral Jurien de Lagravière, which were frankly communicated at the time to Her Majesty's advisers. They were remarkable enough to have attracted the attention of any prudent statesman. After a preamble relating the nature and the plan of the expedition, the note concluded by putting a significant and hypothetical case. It was possible, M. de Lagravière was informed, that the presence of allied troops in Mexico might

determine the "healthy" portion of the population, to whom prolonged anarchy was insupportable, to make an effort to set up a government presenting desirable guarantees of strength and stability. In such a case the French commander was instructed "not to refuse his moral support" to any movement set on foot by persons of "position," which was likely to meet with "general success." We do not know what clearer intimation could have been given us of the course France intended to pursue. Veiled as it may be in decent diplomatic tropes and metaphors, the meaning of the above is unmistakeable. A creditable period is allowed to elapse after the landing of the allies, and General Almonte appears in the French background. He is certainly a person of "position," and "success," for very obvious reasons, is not unlikely to crown his undertaking. So far, the French hypothesis is realized. But Almonte is not the sole figure in the background. His manifesto points darkly to the possible arrival on the scene of a still greater personage than himself. "The General entreates his countrymen to confide in France, to second whose efforts and to explain whose intentions he has come. As for himself, the honour of serving his country is the only recompense he desires." This disavowal of ulterior ambition is perhaps sincere. The proscribed General is known to have some interest on the Backstairs of the Tuileries, and having been exiled for betraying the interests of Mexico to Spain, might with propriety return to power on the strength of betraying Mexico to France. But in all probability he is merely the dove let loose on the Mexican waters to see if they are likely to subside. The precipitate retreat of Prim and the vexation of the Spanish Government are signs that a European candidate, more distasteful to Spain than any Mexican adventurer, is expected on the scene.

The Emperor Napoleon is committing a serious mistake. The Mexicans themselves have degenerated since the days of Hidalgo and Morelos, and might possibly acquiesce, after a few fiery attempts at resistance, in any government imposed upon them by Europe. But the Cabinet of Washington must be changed indeed if it consents to tolerate such a subversion of the Mexican Republic. Not merely would an awkward precedent be established for the violation of the Monroe doctrine in other cases, but the traditional cupidity of American statesmen would be balked for a long time to come. Under present circumstances the Lincoln Government will be less disposed than ever to endure any foreign intervention. Had the English alone been concerned, we should have had a loud outcry long ago from the North. To the French much is pardoned on both sides of the Atlantic, apparently because they sin much. But we cannot help thinking that they are now proposing to do more than Americans will be inclined to submit to. Nor is the line adopted by France in the matter popular within her own borders. Paris feels far more regret than we do at the turn affairs have taken. Little wars are proverbially expensive, and the distress felt in the cotton trade and the silk trade renders the French nation impatient of unnecessary expenditure. With one or two exceptions the Paris journals are protesting against the reactionary propaganda into which France is being drawn. It is a great question whether Juarez is not as good a ruler as Mexico is likely to get: and Almonte is partly identified with the cause of the Mexican clergy. The Mexican policy of the Tuileries will land them in difficulties abroad and some little unpopularity at home. Economy and retrenchment are becoming fast a national cry on both sides of the Channel.

It is not for England to protest against this new French occupation. Whatever its evils, foreign intervention in Mexico will be attended with some material benefits. An infusion of foreign adventure is absolutely needed to rouse a lazy population to take advantage of the bounteous provisions of nature with which they are surrounded. As in other tropical climates where the soil and vegetation are so rich that famine—in the words of M. Chevalier—scarcely visits the most indolent, so it is in Mexico. The banana is to the inhabitant of the *tierras calientes* what the bean is to the Egyptian and rice to the Indian of Bengal. No labour is required to produce it, and it supports him in idleness and poverty. Yet the country is fertile beyond the utmost desire of man. Little beyond industry and that art of irrigation which has been neglected since the days of Spanish rule, is wanted to enable Mexico to be one of the granaries of the world. Neither will return until she has been infected with the spirit of enterprise and commercial ambition. Not till security is given to the labourer and trader, can it be expected that her vast mineral resources will be fairly tested. A settled government is as necessary as the presence of European enterprise for the development of mining as well as of agriculture and trade. If the French were permanently to occupy Mexico, it would be, in all probability, a fortunate and a rich speculation. It is certainly not our business to interfere. For some reasons we should look upon such a step with pleasure. We are not prepared on the present occasion to take the responsibility of insisting that the lives of European settlers should once more be trusted to Mexican care. To do so would be carrying international jealousy too far; nor should we grudge France the possession of a colonial settlement that would absorb and employ her restless energies for the good of herself and of the world.

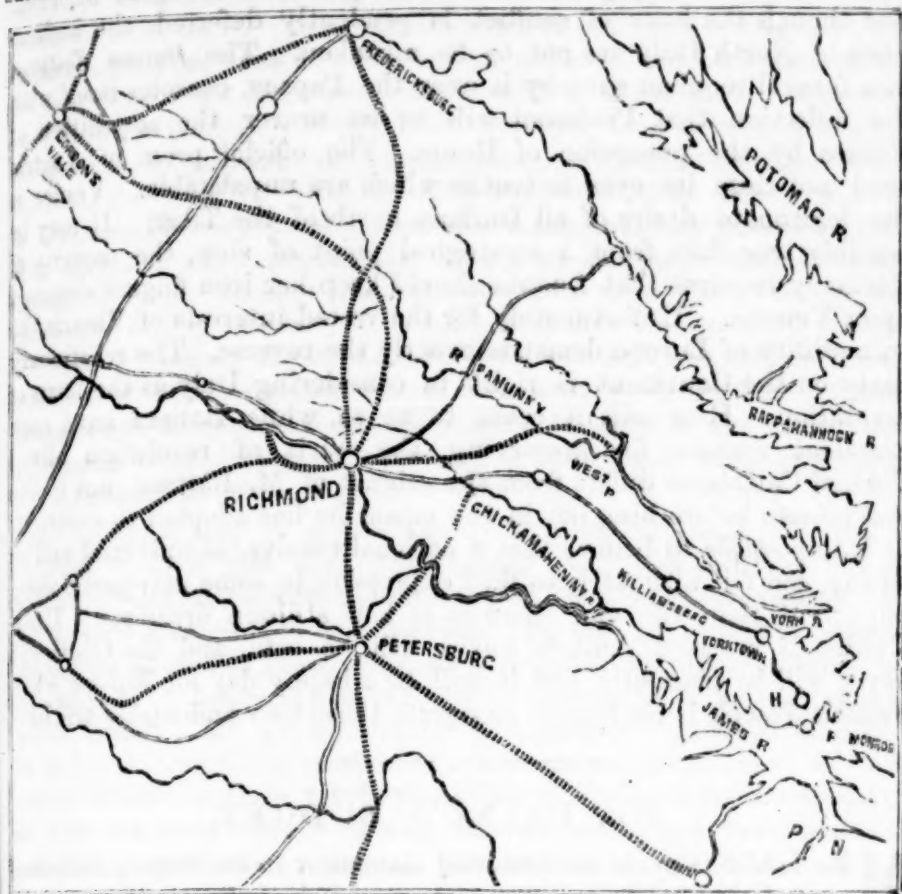
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GENERAL McCLELLAN'S STRATEGY.

THE evacuation of Yorktown seems to have surprised some of the military critics in this country. According to one, "the retreat of a powerful army from a position protected by strong defensive works, before an inferior force, is one of the strangest events of war." It is fortunate for the Confederates that they were better instructed in the art of war than some of those who presume to sit in judgment upon them; for most assuredly, if the Confederates had not retired when they did, they would have been not only defeated, but utterly annihilated. A glance at the map is sufficient to show the real state of affairs, and to exhibit both the difficulties which General McClellan had to surmount, and to justify the plan he adopted for surmounting them.



H. Hampton. N. Norfolk. P. Portsmouth.

The principal scene of the operations in question is very confined. It may be stated generally that, on the 1st of May, the great army of the Confederates occupied a line of entrenchments from Yorktown, on the York River, to some place on the James River, whilst the army of McClellan occupied a position in front of them, about twenty-five miles west of Fortress Monroe.

Now the object of McClellan was to reach Richmond. In order to accomplish this, one of three courses was open to him. He might force his way through the line of entrenchments in his front; but this could only be at an enormous sacrifice of blood and labour. He might turn the right flank of the Confederates, which rested upon the northern bank of the James River, by embarking his troops on transports, and landing them at some point in rear of the enemy and nearer Richmond. But to this course there were many objections. In the first place, the *Merrimac* and other iron-clad vessels were lying at Norfolk just opposite Fortress Monroe, ready to assail any transports which might appear in the neighbourhood; in the second place, even if the Federalists could have succeeded in landing on the north bank of the James River, they would not only have been placed between the troops at Richmond and the troops at Yorktown, with their rear on the sea, but their junction with Banks and McDowell, which was a matter of the utmost importance, would not have been facilitated. Lastly, it was possible for McClellan to turn the left flank of the Confederates, which rested upon the York River, by means of his transports, and landing his army at West Point, which lies at the head of that river.

And this was, in fact, the plan adopted by McClellan. It appears that he made every disposition as if he intended to attack the lines in his front. But in the mean time a division of 20,000 men, under an able and energetic officer, Franklin, was embarked in steam transports, which were on the point of sailing up the York River. The Confederates seem to have become aware of this movement; they discovered the danger, and instantly gave orders to retreat. General Magruder alone, of all the Confederate officers, seems to have opposed this resolution, on the absurd ground that the works of Yorktown could be held if attacked. But Jefferson Davis and Generals Joseph Johnston and Lee saw clearly that whilst they were waiting the assault on the ramparts, the Federalists would probably be forty miles in their rear, and in full march for Richmond. It will be observed that West Point, to which the division of General Franklin was despatched by the Commander-in-Chief, is about thirty-five miles from Richmond. At West Point the river Pamunkey joins the York River, and at the same spot is the terminus of the railway to the Virginian capital. As the main body

of the Confederates must retreat by the longer route along the James River, all the troops posted in the north to oppose the advance of McDowell at Fredericksburg, and Banks at Gordonsville, must be withdrawn to Richmond, so that these Federal officers will be in a position to march southward, and thus to effect a junction with the main army under McClellan. At the same time, it should be observed, that neither McClellan nor McDowell would, in such an event, expose either their flank or their rear by the anticipated movement.

In the meantime the Confederates having completed the evacuation of Yorktown on the 4th of May, made a precipitate retreat. General McClellan pursued them with cavalry and artillery, and a very severe skirmish—or rather a battle, for the troops engaged amounted to 80,000 men—took place before he occupied Williamsburgh. This town the Confederates have since abandoned, and have retreated eleven miles further west—in fact, to Barret's ford, on the Chickahominy river. This tortuous sluggish stream, not a quarter of a mile broad, rises to the north of Richmond, sweeps round towards the east, and after being crossed by the railway which connects that city with West Point, turns towards the south-east, and finally falls into the James River. Though the bridges are broken down, there are fords which prevent its being any very serious obstruction to an advancing army. The distance between West Point and Richmond is about thirty-five miles; the distance between Barret's ford and the capital is about sixty-one. It is clear, therefore, that the Federalists, who are operating by the shorter line, enjoy great advantages. Indeed, so hot does the pursuit of the Confederates by the Federals appear to be, that, according to one telegram attributed to General McClellan himself, the enemy had crossed the James River, in order probably to reach Richmond by the railway on the southern bank of that river.

In short, the contest between General McClellan and Jefferson Davis depends upon the comparative speed with which they march. But even if the Confederates should succeed in arriving at Richmond and getting into position, it will only be to receive the combined attack of the whole of McClellan's army, aided by the corps of Banks and McDowell. It seems to be imagined by some Southern critics that the retreat upon Richmond must prove an advantage to the Confederates and a disadvantage to the Federalists. The Confederates, it is said, will be nearer their resources,—the Federalists will be further removed. But this is an error. The real base for the defence of Richmond is Norfolk. This is their chief arsenal; if, in the present emergency, troops are left to protect it, their great centre, Richmond will be weakened; if, on the other hand, the troops are withdrawn, Norfolk must surrender. Nor is this result rendered less improbable by the fact that the Federal gunboats seem to be now in practical possession of the James, as they have all along been of the York river. On the other hand, the advance of the Federalists along the peninsula towards Richmond, is no disadvantage. Their real base of operations is not Fortress Monroe, but Washington, and the numerous rivers which intersect the country afford ample means of supplying the Federal army with any amount of ammunition, provisions, and other stores.

Until the arrival of the official despatches from Commodore Porter and Farragut it was thought by many that New Orleans had been an easy conquest; and the Confederates were abused in no measured terms for their cowardice and want of energy. These delusions are now at an end. It was only after bombarding Forts Philip and Jackson for six days that the Federalists ventured to run the gauntlet of their fire, and to ascend the Mississippi, amidst steam rams and flaming rafts, until they reached the Crescent City. It is evident that there was no lack of gallantry or skill on either side. In the same spirit of censorious criticism we are told that blood enough has not been shed at Yorktown to gild the names of General McClellan or of his adversaries. Because a great battle has not been fought it is confidently predicted that no such event will ever take place. But amongst those who understand the science of war it would be difficult to find one who does not admire the skill of the American officers who have hitherto planned and executed the military movements in Virginia. The defence of Richmond, if it is to be defended, will be no easy task. That city lies on the north side of the James River, and therefore, in case of defeat, the Confederates will be compelled to retreat across a river which is passable only by a few bridges. This may possibly induce the Confederate officers to abandon the city of Richmond proper, and, placing the James River in their front, to concentrate their forces on the south side of the river in the suburb of Manchester. But, whatever may be the plan adopted, everything which has hitherto occurred should lead us to anticipate that the territory of the Old Dominion will not be abandoned without a display of no ordinary gallantry and military skill.

THE MOVEMENT IN NORTH ITALY.

SO long as Austria holds Venice, the peace of Europe will always be at the mercy of the many firebrands whose martial propensities smoulder on under the protection of General Garibaldi. Colonel

Cattabene's little expedition was intended probably, in the first instance, for the defence of Nauplia. It was only on the premature close of the Greek insurrection that he determined to turn his ninety-nine men and their muskets against the Austrian empire. Fortunately his plan was arrested in time. The Tyrolean frontier is bristling already with Austrian bayonets—the whole army of Venetia is eager to repair its losses and dishonour—and a revolutionary raid in the highlands of the Tyrol would have been the signal for Benedek to move at once upon Milan. A more ill-judged measure than provoking a general war by burning a few useless cartridges in the Tyrol can hardly be conceived. There does not appear to have been any reason for supposing that the population, whose neighbourhood the ninety-nine stray Volunteers are preparing to invade, was inclined to sympathize with them. Cattabene and his friends had a vague notion of doing harm somewhere, on the principle of the Irishman who "hoped to God," when he was rushing into the shindy, "that he should hit the right man." Garibaldi is as rash as he can be, but he is not so mad as to have been mixed up in a scheme so incomprehensible. That he directed the original movement for the assistance of the Greek rebels is probable enough. The subsequent change in its destination must be attributed to the genius of his officers alone.

This abortive attempt will strengthen the Government of Rattazzi. The leaders of the Cabinet were absent at Naples, and Signor Capriolo, the Secretary of the Home Department, was ill in bed. In their absence, their subordinates displayed a vigour and a promptitude which augurs well for the statesmanship of the next generation, and the popular demonstrations at Bergamo and elsewhere were successfully, although not altogether bloodlessly, repressed. With characteristic generosity, Garibaldi, who had been a stranger to the conception of the expedition, was ready to resume the responsibility of it when it had failed. Cattabene was in the first instance arrested under a curious mistake for a different and, as it turned out, an imaginary offence, and had been led between two gendarmes into Genoa from Garibaldi's country-house. The details of the conspiracy were not discovered till after his capture, though the Cabinet had been generally forewarned by General Turr and Sir James Hudson that mischief was brewing.

The necessary severity of the officials at Bergamo aroused Garibaldi's indignation. He addressed an intemperate letter to the *Milan Gazette*, and demanded of the local authorities the release of the prisoners they had made. Fortunately they had sufficient courage to do their duty, and the fiery volunteers, with their incautious chiefs, have been safely lodged in the fortress of Alessandria. By this time, it may be, the anger of the first soldier of Italy has been appeased by the remonstrances of his friends. The prefect of Brescia had threatened him with personal arrest; and though the insult was forbidden at once by a telegraphic message from Turin, the bare idea of such an indignity was sufficient to exasperate Garibaldi beyond all power of self-control. For the present the danger of immediate disturbance is over. In Europe the blame of the whole *émeute* will probably be laid upon Mazzini and the party of action, who really have done nothing to deserve it. Depretis, the one member of the Rattazzi Cabinet who represents the Extreme Left, has not identified himself with the volunteer invaders of the Tyrol, and seems to have no intention of resigning in consequence of the measures adopted against them. Nor has there been anything like a Mazzinian demonstration. The whole affair is the creation of a knot of hair-brained military adventurers, whose honesty no doubt is above suspicion, but whose prudence is below par. Whatever modifications take place in the Ministry at Turin will not be due to the recent movement. Conforti and Persano are said to be about to relinquish their portfolios, but for reasons connected with the administration of their particular departments. No harm will have been done to the Italian cause by the display of determination on the part of the Executive. Garibaldi has learnt before this, from the sullen temper shown him once or twice by the superior officers of the regular army, that military discipline and order will be supported at all costs by a large part of the nation. His own nobility of nature will soon remind him that those countries alone can be truly free in which heroes, like other men, are compelled to yield obedience to the law.

The chief inconvenience that has arisen as yet from the Bergamo manifestation has been the sudden and necessary return of Victor Emmanuel and his two principal advisers from Naples. Their visit received additional importance from the presence of Prince Napoleon and M. Benedetti; and the meeting of so many statesmen in the south of Italy naturally had the appearance of a political conference. It was certainly not to discuss the railway projects of M. Rothschild that the meeting took place, and that Sir James Hudson set off in hot haste to assist at the deliberations. Nor was it undesirable that the king of Italy should prolong his stay in his southern capital. Brigandage and insurrection are not yet extinct in the Abruzzi, and Francis II. is said still to adhere to a long-formed project of a more formal attempt to regain his crown. The enthusiasm of the Neapolitans for the new *régime* has been exaggerated by the Piedmontese and

denied by the Ultramontane papers. In reality the loyalty of the lazzaroni is as great as any loyalty which consists almost entirely in an indolent admiration of court processions. It would not have suffered by a longer acquaintance with their new sovereign. But all these evils are counterbalanced by the moral influence which the Italian Ministry have gained in Europe through their vigour and courage in crushing the outbreak. It is said that the most favourable impression has been produced both in Prussia and in Russia. Nor can Italy afford to despise such moral conquests. She is not yet strong enough to dispense with foreign assistance and encouragement in a conflict with Austria. The promptitude with which the Rattazzi Cabinet have acted is a proof that they well know France would never consent to be dragged by the Revolution into a sudden war. Without her aid, we should see the tragedies of 1849 repeated over again in 1862. But though the hour of conflict is prudently deferred, the inclinations of North Italy are not to be mistaken. The *Donau Zeitung*, in a funeral requiem sung by it over the Papacy, consoles itself with the reflection that Piedmont will be no nearer the acquisition of Venice by the possession of Rome. The official press of Austria need not close its eyes to truths which are unpalatable. Venice is the legitimate desire of all Italians north of the Tiber. It may be possibly true that, from a strategical point of view, the security of Germany requires that Austria should keep her iron fingers clenched upon Venetia. Unfortunately for the vested interests of Vienna the tranquillity of Europe demands exactly the reverse. The reactionary party on the Continent is right in considering Italy as the focus of revolution. How can it cease to be so, while Italians have such excellent reasons for preserving the spirit of revolution alive? Colonel Cattabene differs from the cabinet of M. Rattazzi, not in the end he sets before him, but in the means he has adopted to secure it. It is impossible to believe that a national resolve, so universal and so strong, can fail ultimately to find expression in some movement more important than the wild schemes of half a dozen dreamers. Until Venice is released Austria never will be safe, and the Continent never will be tranquil; and it will be a happy day for Europe when Francis Joseph is content to recognize these two undeniable truths.

MR. LAING'S BUDGET.

MR. LAING made his financial statement in the Supreme Council at Calcutta before a more crowded audience than usually assembles to listen to the conversational discussions of that body. The event was expected with more than ordinary interest. It was known that a question entirely new to Indian financiers was about to be discussed, and orders for admission into the council-room were applied for as eagerly as orders for the gallery of the House of Commons on the night of Mr. Gladstone's financial statement. None of the present Indian officials have had any experience of dealing with a surplus. A series of great and little wars, beginning with the Affghan war more than twenty years ago, have left their traces in the Indian budgets, and from that time to the present there has been, with very trifling exceptions, an unvarying progression of deficits. The series has at last been interrupted by a moderate surplus in the year just ended, and an estimated one of £1,500,000 for the coming year. It was known that a portion of the surplus would be disposable in the remission of taxation, and that Mr. Laing would be called on to decide between the claims of the several classes of tax-payers, each praying to be relieved of their own peculiar burdens. This was a task which has not fallen to the lot of any Indian financier of the present generation. Though the amount of Mr. Laing's surplus, and the manner in which he disposed of it, were known to us before the arrival of a full report of his speech, the interest of that very able statement is not in the least degree diminished. The novelty of the present condition of Indian finances, and the unexampled success which has attended the efforts of the Indian Government for their restoration, will be sufficient to make the minutest details on the subject of importance.

Mr. Laing's statement is framed on the English model, and begins by presenting the balance-sheet of the year just ended. No other part of his speech offers more conclusive proof of the advance that India has lately made towards a good financial system. Every one remembers how little Indian estimates could formerly be relied upon. There was nothing, indeed, at all deserving of that name. What were called estimates were merely the rudest guesses, and there was no attempt at a regular annual revision of the receipts and expenditure of the several departments. Besides, the system of accounts was so bad, that items amounting to millions were frequently omitted from one side or the other of the account. In one notable instance, two years ago, Sir Charles Wood announced that there would be equilibrium at the end of the year; there was, in fact, a deficit of several millions. For the first time in an Indian Budget, the estimates made at the beginning of the year have been confirmed by the actual results at its close. Mr. Laing promised, a year ago, that there would be equilibrium in April, 1862, and the actual result shows a trifling surplus. It is true that the actual figures both of the revenue and expenditure are considerably larger than the estimates, but this only

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shows the extreme caution with which the estimates of the revenue were prepared, and this increase of actual revenue beyond what was expected enabled the Indian Government to make some extra expenditure on public works and in the cultivation of opium. This near accordance of the actual returns for the past year with the estimates made at the beginning is the more remarkable because it has been a year of extraordinary change. The entire military and civil administration has undergone a complete revision, and a reduction has been effected in the expenditure amounting altogether to £5,000,000. The state of accounts has not, however, yet reached the same state of perfection as in England, and Mr. Laing thinks it necessary to confirm his figures by a comparison of the cash balances at the end of the last financial year and at present. Cash balances are often delusive, and require careful examination before any conclusion can be drawn from them. A person who makes all his receipts and payments through his banker, may have a greater balance at the end of the year than at the beginning, and yet have spent during the year more than his income. He may, for instance, have borrowed money, which has been paid into the bank, or he may not have made all his payments for the year. But the only payments made this year into the Indian Treasury have consisted of the ordinary revenue, and, after allowing for a considerable sum still due to England, there remains a larger balance than there was a year ago. When the whole expenditure of the year is paid, and the entire receipts consist of ordinary income, the increase of the cash balances is conclusive proof that there is a real surplus of income over expenditure. Even though we should not at once feel entire confidence in the correctness of Indian accounts, we cannot refuse them our assent when confirmed by the state of the cash balances.

Before proceeding to dispose of his surplus, Mr. Laing deemed it necessary to show that the improvement in Indian finances was of such a permanent character as to justify the repeal of taxation to nearly the full amount of the surplus. In this part of Mr. Laing's speech will be found statements in direct contradiction to what we have been in the habit of hearing from those who affect to understand Indian finance. Mr. Laing has, in fact, made a very important and gratifying discovery. It has been hitherto supposed that in one material point the Indian revenue differed wholly from the English. The great feature of our revenue is its elasticity. This is a theme on which an English Chancellor of the Exchequer is never tired of dilating. The bulk of it is raised from a few articles of general consumption; and as the wealth and therefore the consuming power of the country advances, the revenue advances with equal steps. But the bulk of the Indian revenue comes from the land-tax and from opium. One of these has generally been supposed totally inelastic, and the other precarious. The revenue consisted of two parts, one of which was considered as unlikely to rise, and the other as very likely to fall. As regards opium, at least, this was the opinion adopted even so late as 1860 by Mr. Wilson, and was used by him as an argument for the imposition of his new taxes. Mr. Laing has shown satisfactorily that the Indian revenue is extremely elastic. Laying out of account all the new taxes, and comparing the produce of the taxes that existed ten years ago with the produce of the same taxes at present, it appears that the progressive increase of the Indian revenue has been at the rate of £700,000 in each year, and that the tendency of this rate is rather to increase than to diminish. Mr. Laing shows that there is no more ground for considering the existing opium revenue precarious than any other revenue, such as that raised in England from gin or tobacco, which depends on an artificial taste widely diffused over a vast population. There has been a steadily increasing demand for opium in China for the last five years, which has not been met by any increase of supply. The price has in consequence nearly doubled, which has called into existence a certain amount of native cultivation. This is, however, of inferior quality, and sells at only two-thirds of the price of Indian opium. The Indian Government has already taken measures to increase the cultivation to meet the full demands of China. The prices will, of course, then fall, and the inferior native opium will go largely out of cultivation when that of India can be obtained at a moderate price. There is no danger, therefore, of the Indian opium being supplanted by that of native growth. Mr. Laing has shown by an easy calculation that, under the system of increased cultivation, there is no risk of the revenue from opium falling off so long as China is able to spend £8,000,000 a year on Indian opium; whereas, this year, and for the average of the last five years, the Chinese have been spending £11,000,000, and it is evident that should they continue to spend at this rate, the revenue from opium must very largely increase.

Mr. Laing disposed of part of his surplus by increasing the grants for education, and for public works. The expenditure for the latter purpose has now reached the annual sum of £4,000,000, and is to be regarded mainly as productive expenditure. It is really an investment which will in a short time bring in profitable returns. Mr. Laing has not given up his favourite scheme of local taxation for local purposes. This will be pursued with greater vigour, as each of the presidencies is now endowed with all the necessary powers by the

establishment of the local councils. The remainder of the surplus is disposed of by reducing the import duties on cotton yarns and piece goods, and in repealing the Income-tax on incomes between £20 and £50 a year. The latter tax affected 600,000 persons; it only produced £350,000 gross, of which at least £100,000 was absorbed by the cost of collection. As Mr. Laing justly observed, the tax was condemned by the mere statement of figures. The Income-tax, so far as it affects incomes above £50 a year, has not been touched. But, considering the elasticity which has now been proved to exist in the Indian revenue, there is every ground for hoping that the Indian Government will be able to keep faith with its subjects, and remove the tax at the time originally promised, which will be three years from the present time. It has been well observed that the financial position of a country can only be appreciated by comparing it either with another epoch in the same country or with other countries. In whatever way the comparison be made, the result is equally favourable to India, and Mr. Laing's Budget may fairly be regarded as more satisfactory than that of any other great nation at the present time. India is learning the English system of finance, but in one respect she has already bettered the instruction. While we are making comparisons with former years, in order to mark an alarming increase of expenditure, Indian financiers are adopting a similar plan to show an enormous reduction.

CANNIBALISM.

In the primitive world there was once an objectionable custom, that members of a community should minister to one another's necessities in their deaths as well as in their lives. A pious affection consecrated the mortal remains of the loved and lost to a use which was at all events simple. Travellers tell us that there are parts of the world still in which the tradition is preserved. It is well known that indirectly, and after a passage through soil, air, and plants, the material elements of each race of mankind pass into the substance of those that follow; when we eat a sheep, we eat an animal that has browsed the grass, that has fed on the juices of the ground, that has imbibed the rain of heaven; and grass, ground, and rain, are all in part composed of what once was living men. Some nations are in the habit—to speak delicately—of abbreviating this process. They merely help Nature. Good, plain practical people among them see no advantage in cumbersome funerals and costly sepulchres; it does a man no good to put him underground. Grace before meat is as good a burial service as any other, and if people object to serving their generation in the way that their fathers have done before them, the sooner such nonsense is got rid of the better. It is all very well for strangers who come in ships to practise a wasteful and ridiculous system of interment; the "Tom Browns" of the Fiji Islands are probably men who won't stand foreigneering and new-fangled ideas when they interfere with good old honest habits. A man has proved all that man need be here below, if he has turned out in the course of his earthly career at once brave, subtle, faithful, and—wholesome.

It need hardly be said that public opinion in Europe has pronounced very decidedly against the practice. No person of the slightest pretensions to respectability would venture publicly upon it. The upper classes never think of such a thing. Even among the humbler orders it is quite unusual; and well-informed persons declare that it is not common in the west of Ireland. This being the case, why is it that we are so unanimous? There have been philosophers, chiefly Frenchmen, who have declared that the moral creed of the savage is far superior to that of the European; and the untutored Indian was once held up as a model of virtue till people began to be quite ashamed of wearing shoes and stockings. Let us suppose ourselves endeavouring to explain to an intelligent anthropophagist from the tropics why we do not think it right to eat people,—we do not mean to eat immoderately, or to be too fond of it, or to kill people for food without sufficient cause, but simply to do as others in the Pacific Ocean do. It cannot be said that it is not agreeable to nature; for the facts prove that with some races it is quite so; and, moreover, a great part of the creed of Christendom consists in acting contrary to simple natural impulses. Nor is it fair to urge that it might lead to the prevalence of unlawful homicide; for the abuse of a thing is not its use, and it might be argued in the same way that the eating of sheep's flesh leads to illicit sheep-stealing. Nor again is it, as so many people believe, a custom pernicious to health. We do not wish to enter too minutely into particulars, but looking at the question generally it must be admitted that the higher we ascend in the scale of organic nature, the more strengthening is the food which the animal yields. Fish is poor nourishment—fit for Fridays; chicken is a little more invigorating—nice eating, in fact, for invalids; rabbits and hares have their advantages; but a strong man wants beef. What are we to say to the intelligent foreigner, who wants to know why we do not advance one step higher? We cannot tell him that it is wicked and impious; we cannot show him any precept in the Bible forbidding us directly to utilize the defunct. We may not, it is true, marry our grandmothers; but it nowhere says that we may not eat our grandfathers. Besides, he might reply that he came from the tribe where the belief was all the other way, and where his countrymen merited Paradise "by revenge, and eating many enemies." One loophole of escape appears in the physiological part of the question; for it is usually found that carnivorous animals are not good food, and man is semi-carnivorous. But, on the other

hand, dogs will thrive on the flesh of other dogs, and rabbits on that of rabbits: and the famous Kilkenny cats only obeyed a wholesome instinct in eating one another up. So that we shall do well in the discussion to fall back upon general remarks upon the dignity of the species, and the insult offered by such a custom to the collective status of humanity; which remarks the intelligent foreigner, being unable to understand, will probably not be in a position to confute.

It is perhaps time, however, to consider one theory which has been proposed of late years upon the subject of cannibalism, which disposes of several of its chief difficulties. The theory is, that the custom does not exist. It is said that, strong as the evidence is, it is yet not sufficient to prove the fact; that vast allowance must be made for ignorant love of the marvellous, still more for malicious lying, and some even for capricious blundering. A writer in the *Quarterly Review*, a few years ago, went so far as to suggest that one witness of cannibalism in New Zealand had been *hoaxed* by the humorous natives. If travelling Englishmen are to be the victims of the practical jokes of savage tribes, there is indeed no end to the geographical scepticism that may arise. Perhaps it was only by way of make-believe that Indian widows used to enter their husband's graves; and when the King of Dahomey executes his "grand custom," it is only his way of shocking public sensibilities by a conjuring trick. But we are not quite driven to such a hypothesis. There is no doubt, indeed, that the accusation of cannibalism has been frequently made without a particle of proof; heathens, under the empire, used to bring the charge against Christians, and Christian crusaders as often against Saracens. Indeed, some nations have been found with whom we appear to lie under the imputation ourselves; in the Gallas language, the name of white man is synonymous with man-eater. But the proof of the existence of cannibalism is as strong as it need be. No Englishman, it is true, has ever seen one savage eat another; but Englishmen have seen savages roasting each other for food. There are three special districts famous for cannibalism on the globe. Central Africa has always enjoyed a reputation in this respect beyond other lands, and it is from it that the latest cannibal stories have come. Whether we are to believe M. du Chaillu's narrative or not, the existence of man-eaters in the countries which he describes is matter of the oldest history; Mr. Petherick, if we are not mistaken, has reported that he has reached the zone of the same custom on the other side of the continent; and at Matiamvo, the strange territory further south, where the kings are said to succeed by the constitutional murder of their predecessors, the coronation ceremony is described by a late Portuguese traveller as containing customs extremely anthropophagic. The real and original "Cannibal Islands" are shrouded in poetic mystery; but the title should belong to the Fijian group *par excellence*. Of the nature of their meals, the strongest of all the evidence is that of the present Roman Catholic missionaries; though when they relate a concerted attack made upon them only six years ago by the 3,000 Protestant converts, led on by the Protestant missionaries under the protection of the English ships of war, we begin to feel that Father Parel's accounts of the cooking of the prisoners may possibly be a little imaginative. The third cannibal district is Brazil, where Lieut. Smyth's guide, on the banks of the Amazon, as he trudged along, told him that he wished he could shoot those men yonder, as he was sure they would be good. The North American Indians are not altogether immaculate,—the most degraded among them, at all events; and even the Iroquois, when they wish to make war on another tribe, use what is either a very significant expression, or a very queer metaphor, and say, "Let us go and eat that nation." Whatever we may have said slightly of the Roman Catholic missionaries, it must be acknowledged that it was they, if the story be true, who worked the deliverance of the Caribs from the stigma of cannibalism—not, it is true, by the influence of religious teaching chiefly. The Caribs, says Herrera, were cured of their cannibal appetites by devouring a Dominican monk. "They fell sick of him," he simply states, "and would no longer eat either priest or layman."

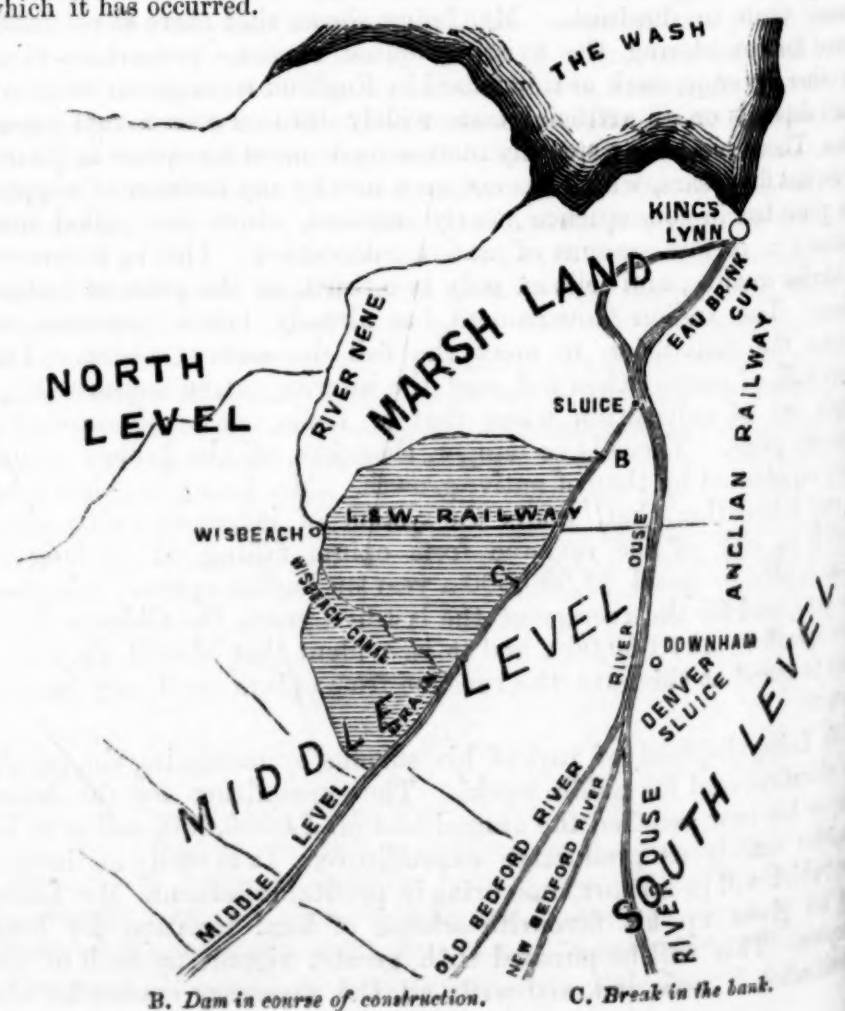
But, granting that some unsophisticated nations do eat one another—and if Humboldt and Prescott were satisfied on the point, why should not we be so too?—it is far from certainly known why they do it. Is it from excess of love, as some travellers tell us, or from excess of hate, as others believe? Do they do it for the most part when in want of other food, as the Carrier Indians? or in preference to other food, as some of the races of Brazil? Is it a mark of utter abasement, as is generally thought? or is it, as one popular author of the day declares, a sign merely of a certain stage in political development? It is not the most degraded races of mankind that eat human flesh: the Fiji Islanders are far above the worst of the Bushmen, for example, in the scale of humanity; and in fact—so says a trustworthy writer—consider themselves rather gentlemanly than otherwise. It is true that they kill all their old people; but there is no doubt that they treat them with great kindness until they are old enough to be killed. For ourselves we are inclined to think that the motives to cannibalism are twofold. Some tribes adopt it from misery and starvation; others, and those the greater number, out of fierceness and the spirit of revenge. The Tupi races of Brazil, to take an instance, are courageous and enterprising, and they eat their prisoners from feelings of anger—an anger not so hot, it may be remarked, that they cannot wait to fatten them. Near them live another tribe, cowardly and stupid folk, who never eat human flesh at all; and near these again a third race, the Aimotés—miserable beings who cannot swim, and hardly know how to live together in communities—and these

practise cannibalism for want of other food. The first class of motives is, it appears to us, by far the most common. The Battas of Sumatra are said to eat their malefactors. The Charruas, who are not cannibals generally, ate the body of their enemy Solis, after death. The Mexicans, at the siege of their capital were horrified at the idea of eating their own countrymen, but thought prisoners of war the obvious and natural resource for the appetite. And the New Caledonians, who share their partialities at the present day, think the conduct of white men, in devouring the animals which they have reared and fed, little short of monstrous.

If we now return to our discussion with the intelligent foreigner, who asks us why we think his conduct objectionable, and set our missionaries to discourage it, what light have we gained from examining the fact? We can point out to him that no cannibal nations have ever arrived at very high social cultivation, or made any great progress in science or art; and we can urge the wickedness of giving way to those feelings of anger, which in some cases have so marked a development. Beyond this we really do not know how far we can go; and it will only remain to add, that in this, as in so many other things, his taste and ours are different. We will not quarrel, we will say, about matters of mere food. People can have a very high respect for each other without eating of the same dishes, and æsthetic varieties of opinion need not prevent perfect mutual esteem. With all due regard for each other's opinion we yet amicably differ. If an intelligent friend is mistaken in his view, it is an error doubtless of the head, and not of the heart. Perhaps he will not think too harshly of us for our own preference for mutton. If any one, however, should think from our tolerant tone that we are about to adopt our friend's practice, he is very much mistaken. We should consider it the worst possible taste in any Englishman to do so. Nothing could make us more unhappy than to think that any of our readers should be led, by what is here said, into a custom so extremely unusual. If any apology, indeed, is needed for the light tone of some of our remarks, it must be found in the fact that the vice of cannibalism is not at present a common one, or likely soon to be popular. If we do bite and devour one another, it is in a purely metaphorical sense. Should the vice in question even assail the higher strata of society, should good *ton* cease to repudiate it, and fickle fashion adopt it as the novelty of the day, we shall not then spare the voice of earnest remonstrance, or the keener lash of satire.

THE FLOOD IN THE FENS.

It is not often that an opportunity of seeing a natural catastrophe on a considerable scale occurs in this time and country. Efforts of ingenuity prolonged for centuries, and diversified in every possible way, have so nearly tamed the great forces of nature, and subordinated them to social purposes, that we are almost apt to forget their existence, and to think that even temporary inconvenience is no longer to be apprehended, on any large scale, from the ravages of wind, fire, or water. The great fire which threatened Southwark with destruction last summer, showed that one at least of the four elements still retained some originality of character; and the great flood in the Fens is well worth looking at, not only because it is in itself a curious and even beautiful sight, but also because it must forcibly remind every one who sees it of the fact that great districts of the richest part of England are to this day saved from being a mere wilderness of bogs and pools only by an elaborate system of precautions, the efficiency of which depends entirely on unremitting vigilance. The precise nature of the present flood can hardly be understood without some notion of the general character of the district in which it has occurred.



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The great level of the Fens, which is called the Bedford Level, from the nobleman who played the most prominent part in the first systematic attempts to drain it, extends over a district comprising about 680,000 acres of land, sixty miles long from north to south, and twenty miles broad from east to west. The high lands (the term is merely comparative) which bound it are somewhat in the shape of a horse-shoe. At one time it must have formed, according to Mr. Smiles (who gives an interesting account of the district in the first volume of his "Lives of the Engineers"), "an immense estuary of the Wash, into which the rivers Wytham, Welland, Glen, Nen, and Ouse discharged the rainfall of the central counties of England." In the immediate neighbourhood of the sea the land lies somewhat higher than it does a little further inland, in consequence of the great amount of silt which the sea throws up and the fresh waters bring down. The whole level is divided into three parts,—the North Level, which extends from the Welland to the Nen; the Middle Level, from the Nen to the Ouse; and the South Level, from the Ouse to the end of the district, in the line between Cambridge and Newmarket. The drainage of the district involves several distinct problems, the most important of which are, firstly, to give the rivers a straight and safe course into the sea. By this means the waters of the higher lands are carried over the fens without flooding them. Secondly, to carry the water of the fens themselves into the rivers. This of course dries the fens themselves. Thirdly, to prevent the tidal waters from flowing back from the sea upon the fens and so drowning them again.

These objects were effected in former times—so far as they were effected at all—by one system of drains for all the three divisions of the district—the North, Middle, and South Levels,—but the North Level was long since completely separated from the two others, which were both drained by the Ouse. The course of this river was naturally both fluctuating and winding, but by various arts and embankments it was brought at last to run in a tolerably direct and well-ascertained course from a point at some distance below St. Ives, in Huntingdonshire, to Denver Sluice, near Downham Market, and thence to Lynn, on the Norfolk coast. The two principal works for this purpose were the Old and New Bedford Rivers, and the Eau Brink Cut. The Old and New Bedford Rivers are parallel cuts, of the respective widths of 70 and 100 feet, twenty-one miles in length, and separated from each other by a long and narrow strip of land called the Washes. The Eau Brink Cut begins about four miles above Lynn, where the course of the river made an immense bend, and the result of the three, or rather two works (for the Old and New Bedford Rivers are substantially one) is to shorten the course of the Ouse by about thirty miles, and to convert it into a proximately direct stream, into which the South Level and the Middle Level discharge their drainage by cuts running at right angles to its course, from east to west in the case of the South Level, and from West to East in the case of the Middle Level. At the point where the Bedford Rivers join the old course of the Ouse a work called Denver Sluice is built across the Ouse, by which the tide is turned up the Bedford Rivers.

This was the general plan of the district till about the year 1850. The Middle Level proprietors then considered that their drainage would be greatly improved if they communicated with the sea by a direct cut, instead of collecting their water by drains running parallel to the Wash and turning it into the Ouse at right angles. They accordingly dug a drain called the Middle Level Drain, running nearly parallel to the Bedford Rivers, and falling into the Ouse at a point about four miles above Lynn, and seven or eight miles below Denver Sluice. Before reaching the Ouse the Middle Level Drain passes for some miles over a set of fens called the Marshland Fens, which lie between the Middle Level and the sea, and have a system of drainage of their own. The waters they contain are collected into a drain which falls into the Ouse at a place called Marshland Sluice, about 200 yards south of the Middle Level Sluice, which is the termination of the Middle Level Drain. The Marshland Fens lie about five feet below the surface of the water in the Middle Level Drain, from which they are protected by an embankment.

Such is the scene of the flood. Its circumstances were as follows:—The Middle Level Sluice has a bridge of three arches, over which passed the towing-path along the bank of the Ouse. The opening to each of the arches was filled by strong gates opening outwards, so that at low tides the waters of the drain passed through them into the Ouse, whilst the tide of flood, as it passed up the Ouse, closed them, and so shut itself out. The sluice was built in 1851 or 1852, and stood securely till the 4th instant, when for some reason not yet fully ascertained, it fell in bodily. One of the arches, the one nearest Lynn, was standing last Monday, though the crown of the arch was broken into three pieces; but the other two had then completely disappeared, leaving no traces except a few masses of brickwork, and the sluice-gates lying in the water. The consequence of this was, that the tide rushed up the Middle Level Drain, from which the sluice had excluded it. At the highest spring tides it rises 18 feet, and on the 12th instant it broke through a weak part of the embankment four miles above the sluice and on the north side of the drain, producing what in the dialect of the district is called a "gull" or gulf, through which the water poured out into the Marshland Fens. The size of this breach was of course constantly enlarged by the passage of the water, and at the end of the flood-tide last Monday afternoon, it was 270 feet wide, and on an average 20 feet deep. The water was then pouring through it into the fens in a stream equal in volume to a considerable

river, and with a degree of force to which the swell of the eddies and the constant falling in of the edge of the bank showed to be very great indeed. As the surface of the drain was originally 5 feet above the level of the Marshland Fens, and as the "gull" was then 20 feet deep, it is obvious that the scour of the water had at this time washed away 16 feet of soil. The scene in the neighbourhood was extremely beautiful. The day was very hot and bright, and the water spread out like an immense lake over a district which, of course, could not be measured accurately, but which good judges estimate at six miles by five, which would give thirty square miles, or upwards of 19,000 acres, under water. Looking towards Wisbeach, which lies about six miles due west, the water spread not quite so far as the eye could reach, but as far as a sort of fringe of trees which prevented the eye from reaching further. Looking nearly parallel to the course of the Middle Level Drain itself, which runs from S.W. to N.E., the water almost, if not quite, reached the horizon, and of course as long as it continues to pour through the "gull," the area of the flood must continue to extend itself. The general effect was most pleasing. The monotony of the great expanse of water was broken, and its great extent marked in the most picturesque way by groups of trees, the tops of hedgerows, and here and there two or three cottages or farm-houses standing like so many islands, with the water, in many cases, up to the windows. One or two boats were rowing about in the neighbourhood of the breach, but there were no visible traces of damage. The only thing which suggested it, with the exception of the few cottages surrounded by the water, was the line of telegraph posts indicating the course of the branch line from Watlington to Wisbeach, great part of which was overflowed.

On passing along the embankment towards the sluice, the signs of the mischief which the flood had done became more apparent. The beach itself was left alone, but at several weak points the bank was being puddled. That is, a trench 2 feet wide, and 4 or 5 feet deep, was being dug in the top of it, and filled with strong clay, which was first mixed with water, and then rammed down to make it solid—a process not unlike stopping a bad tooth on a large scale. Further down the drain were several wooden bridges broken down, one of them had been carried entirely away, with the exception of a single strip of planking, and one or two others had lost an arch. Near the bank lay several barges, half sunk, and moored by strong chains and cords to posts which they had, in one or two instances, nearly torn from the ground. These were the vestiges of the failure of the first attempt to repair the damage done to the sluice. It had occurred to some one to make a temporary sluice of the first bridge across the drain above the old sluice. For this purpose a number of barges, laden with sacks of clay, were sunk across the arches until the drain was in a manner dammed. As the tide rose, the barges began to shift, and finally they gave way altogether. The tide carried one of them against the bridge, which was cut in two, and fell down instantly, and two others higher up the drain shared the same fate. One barge was brought up obviously by great exertions just in time to save another bridge; a few yards more would have destroyed it also. The works at present in progress for the repair of the mischief consist of a wooden dam with gates in it to form a temporary sluice, perhaps a quarter of a mile above the original sluice. The dam is to be formed of piles driven into the bed of the drain, and fortified by an outwork of sacks filled with clay thrown into the drain a little lower down. If this work can be completed in a fortnight from the present time steps may be taken to repair the breach—an undertaking which it would be useless to attempt until the tidal water has been prevented from enlarging it. If not, the next spring tides will no doubt greatly increase the damage already done, and the repair of the breach will become a far more formidable undertaking than it is at present. If the breach were efficiently repaired, and the sluice rebuilt, the drainage of the Marshland Fens would not take long. The Marshland Sluice and the drain leading towards it would do much, and the rest could no doubt be effected by steam-engines. The damage done cannot be estimated at less than £150,000. Compensation for the land drowned at £5 an acre would come to £100,000, and the damage to the railways and the bridges, and the expense of rebuilding the sluice and of the temporary works now in progress, will not altogether cost less than £50,000 more, even if the mischief goes no further. Should the next spring-tide coincide with a storm from the north-east, and a few days' rain, the consequences might be tremendous.

DEGREES FOR LADIES.

MANY important subjects are apt to receive less consideration than they deserve, on account of the readiness with which they admit of a ridiculous treatment. The social position of women is one of these; in every age it has been a theme for never-failing merriment to those whose philosophy of life is restricted to a few conventional maxims, and whose taste is the mere reflection of sentiments which happen for the moment to be in fashion. The wits of Athens, Paris, or London, have never found any difficulty in raising a laugh at the expense of such women as particular circumstances, powers, or inclination tempted across the narrow limits of customary behaviour. Englishmen, naturally conservative, are most of all conservative about their wives and daughters, and welcome the joke or satire which puts reformers to the blush, and renders revolution improbable. A good instance of this occurred a year or two ago. Many daily governesses in London have to walk long distances to their various employers' houses, and accordingly resolved to have a room in a central position, to which, in the intervals of

their labour, they might retire for quiet and refreshment. The expedient seemed sufficiently inoffensive, but its novelty created a sensation of amusement, and more than one leading newspaper made it the butt of a great deal of brilliant writing, and many humorous suggestions as to the impending emancipation of the sex, and the probable results of club life among the ladies. The half-mocking vaticinations of danger were, of course, never intended to have any real effect, but the persons principally concerned might well feel surprised and aggrieved that men should see nothing but material for mirth in the simplest attempt to render the inconveniences of a hard life something less severe, and to bring within the reach of the one sex a few of the comforts with which the other is so abundantly provided. At the present moment an endeavour of a far more serious character is being made, and it is to be hoped that whatever objections are to be brought against the proposed scheme will be brought forward seriously, and discussed with the careful consideration which the importance of the subject and the position of those whose interests are in question appear to claim. The "admission of ladies to the examinations at the University of London" sounds at first extremely alarming, and suggests the possibility of an epoch of *précieuses ridicules*, against which society would be perfectly justified in taking every possible precaution. Nothing can be less attractive than the idea of a state of things in which every young lady would be a Bachelor of Arts at least, where sonatas and ballads would be deserted for pure mathematics—where *débütantes* would be looking out for abstract truths instead of serviceable husbands—and where Paul, on his return to the domestic hearth, must expect to find Virginia, in philosophic untidiness, rapt into the sublimities of Platonic speculation, or, with her eye in a fine frenzy rolling, engaged in some agonizing crisis of poetical effort. Equally just would be the apprehensions of the less literary of our countrywomen if there was the least probability of any universal system of examination coming into play. The process of being examined is a particularly disagreeable one, and no one who had not an object in view would be inclined to submit to it. Some of the petitioners, we are inclined to think, can scarcely know how perilous a boon they are invoking, and how serious is the undertaking upon which they are about to enter:—

"Stabant orantes primæ transmittere eursum,
Tendebantque manus ripæ ulterioris amore;"

—but the Styx is swift and deep, and the Elysium of certificated existence is only to be reached after painful efforts and many perils. The less adventurous spirits may well hang back, and shudder at the rashness of their enterprising comrades. Many admirable young ladies have no turn for literature, and would join with the heroine of the French comedy in declining its arduous distinctions:—

"C'est une ambition, que je n'ai point en tête,
Je me trouve fort bien, ma mère, d'être bête."

No social tyranny could be more offensive than the attempt to force the scientific tastes of the few upon the unlearned many, and to oblige people who have no aspirations and no capacities for intellectual distinction, to busy themselves in mastering subjects, from which they despair, with good reason, of deriving either profit or amusement. The ordinary duties of young ladies can be extremely well performed without any familiarity with the dead languages, or any insight into abstruse metaphysics. Very many men would be content that their wives should be—

"Not learned, save in gracious household ways;
Nor perfect, nay, but full of tender wants:"—

And, without joining with Pope in the belief that "most women have no character at all," a husband might reasonably select for his companion in life, one whose best characteristics were unappreciable by any board of examiners, and whose career at the London, or any other University must infallibly have resulted in the most unqualified "pluck."

No such dangers, we are happy to say, are in the present instance to be apprehended. The ladies who are now agitating for an examination and degrees are not the occupants of comfortable homes, the companions of indulgent husbands, or the crowning embellishments of wealthy families. Still less are they the spoilt children of society, or the capricious leaders of a fashionable clique. Their lot is a different and far harder one. They represent the class to whose good sense, learning, and abilities the education of the great mass of young Englishwomen is committed. Their circumstances oblige them to live by their wits, and they claim to be allowed to employ their wits in the most advantageous manner. Many of them would, no doubt, prefer a career of domestic dependence, the simple duties of home life, and the effortless and pleasurable intercourse of congenial marriage. Fortune turns them in a different direction, and they have to adapt themselves, as best they may, for the duties they are called upon to perform, and the vicissitudes which too frequently they have to undergo. The old, foolish objections that too much learning endangers the happiness of home life, has no application here, because, unfortunately, most of the persons concerned have no home-life to be endangered. They are obliged to be independent, and they wish to make their independence honourable to themselves and useful to others. A stupid man may reasonably be afraid of an intellectual wife, but he must be very stupid indeed not to wish for a well-instructed governess. It is towards making and proving themselves well-instructed that the originators of the present movement have directed their endeavours. They find themselves belonging to a class of which little is known except that it is extremely numerous, that a small minority of its members are efficient, and a very large proportion utterly unqualified. They find the means

and appliances of education insufficient, irregular, and unsystematic; they are conscious that their own minds bear the symptoms of imperfect training, and they find those symptoms, in a very aggravated form, constantly occurring in the lower branches of their profession. Inaccuracy of information, incompleteness of thought, inability to pursue any regular process of argument, or to embrace any wide scope of speculation, such are the impediments against which they have to struggle, and which they consider, reasonably enough, would be most effectually met by the regular application, the well-defined employments, the uniform effort, the precise test, which academical arrangements can alone confer. Several great advantages are obvious at first sight. If women, who are to be employed in education, could be submitted to a preliminary test, a certain degree of efficiency would be at any rate secured. At present a lady in search of a governess spends half her time in declining the services of candidates, whose absolute incompetence any examiner would ascertain in five minutes, and whom it would be a real charity to divert to some other and less pretentious employment. In the next place, such an examination would give a woman of exceptional ability the means of ascertaining her powers and comparing them, most beneficially for herself, with those of other people. It would enable her to judge of the particular line in which she would be most likely to succeed, and of the means by which that success could be most easily obtained. At present a clever woman never has the advantage or the stimulus of competition, and her knowledge of herself is accordingly less distinct, and her efforts less vigorous than those of men, who are early engaged in the bracing excitement of intellectual rivalry. But a benefit of more general application would result from the firm and dignified position which those ladies who had taken degrees would undoubtedly occupy. At present a governess may be a paragon of virtue, intelligence, and knowledge; but she is to a large degree at the mercy of her last employer; her principal recommendation is not the "testamur" of several impartial examiners, but the unquestioned evidence of a witness, who is quite certain not to be partial, and who may be capricious, vindictive, or malignant. The diploma of the London University would place a governess beyond the reach of the petty insults and persecutions to which at present their undefended and helpless position exposes them. "To make perforce one's merit known" is the first and most difficult process in an upward career. The proposed system would go far to bringing it within the reach of many whose excellencies are now mere matter of guesswork, and who want nothing but a good opportunity to develop real and remarkable abilities. Governesses would know how to assert their fitness for work: parents would know how to secure a competent governess: both parties would surely be benefited by the arrangement thus achieved. Young women would, it may be hoped, more generally than at present, receive a useful and rational education. Domestic life is endangered not by sound learning and intelligent interests, but by the natural frivolity of an empty mind and an aimless existence. Women are not the better companions for being thoughtless and ignorant; there may, indeed, be amongst us some few so resolutely foolish as to insist on stupidity, and to go on believing that

"L'esprit n'est point du tout ce qu'il faut en ménage,
Les livres cadrent mal avec le mariage:"—

But the great mass of society have come to an understanding less unworthy of intelligent beings; and we shall be much surprised if any serious opposition is offered to a proposal against which nothing but its novelty can be alleged, and which is so likely to confer important advantages on all who come within the scope of its operation.

THE REV. MR. BELLEW AGAIN.

THE REV. MR. BELLEW—who has been of late dividing with the "wondrous Leotard" the nightly honours of Highbury Barn Tavern Assembly-rooms, and of other kindred places of meeting whither omnibuses ply, has paused in his course of popular comic entertainments to address a letter to this journal. A few weeks back comment was made in these columns upon an advertisement in the *Times*, which announced that the reverend gentleman was to preach at an assembly-room belonging to a respectable public-house, and that places were to be "booked" before-hand. The advertisement, it seems, was inaccurate—owing, as Mr. Bellew with comical vanity suggests, to the malignity of Printing-house-square—and Mr. Bellew now contradicts it, though he does not seem to have taken the trouble to correct the mistake in the *Times* at the time that it was originally made.

"An article in your REVIEW has been forwarded to me, which quotes an advertisement—wherein I was announced to 'preach' at a 'public assembly-room.' I have only to say in reply to that article, that the said announcement was altogether unauthorized and untrue. You will do me the favour to give this letter a place in the same columns in which you have thought proper to publish a most personal and offensive attack upon me, based upon an advertisement, which, whether it was intentionally or accidentally incorrect, I do not care to inquire."

That Mr. Bellew has not made his "sacred office" a means of personal aggrandisement will be a source of gratification to all those who respect the venerable traditions of the Church of England, and it is right, perhaps, for Mr. Bellew's sake, that it should be known. Though the "announcement" is "untrue," the "advertisement," we gather from him, is not more than "incorrect." The question, therefore, remains—a question to which Mr. Bellew has not addressed himself—how far was it incorrect? What was that very reverend itinerant doing at the Eyre Arms? His letter is silent upon

this subject.
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likely to be in-
perhaps be at l-
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ested person.
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If the Rev. Ju-
He did not prea-
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S.C.L." What is
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Mr. Bellew has sor-
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lastly, that the pro-
between which ther-
at the Eyre Arms
performer and his a-
draw up the curtain
boards before the p-
April:—

Eugene Aram
The Volunteer.

The Arsenal at S-
The Dying Chris-
The King of Bre-
The Charge of th-

Hamlet and the C-
The Doleful Lay
The Convent Bell
Pains and Perils
The Marine Coun-

A "Pièce de Résistance"
board the *Trent*, and a p-
followed; delivered at St.

RESERVED SEATS

We have no doub-
admirable manner, a-
Nor do we think the
nothing else had been
would be quite worth
"Dying Christian to
"languished into life,"
excellent Testament.
past. The sorrows o-
thorough feeling and a-
given at St. James's I-
have no doubt that it v-

this subject. With all its silence it is, however, not so cleverly worded as not to be suggestive. Assertions about a clergyman's proceedings are not likely to be invented by the daily papers themselves, though a time may perhaps be at hand when it may be as natural to announce that Mr. Bellew has been performing among the Omnibuses, as that her Majesty has been walking upon the Slopes. The advertisement referred to was very cautiously worded, and plainly was not the composition of an enemy, but of an interested person. Mr. Bellew says it was unauthorized. The inference is obvious. There is somebody, then, who has an interest in putting into the papers cautiously composed announcements that Mr. Bellew will appear on certain evenings at certain places of amusement. This, we have reason to believe, is strictly true; and, for general edification, we propose briefly to state what Mr. Bellew *did* do at the Eyre Arms Assembly Rooms, on Wednesday evening, April 30th.

If the Rev. Julian Young was in fault, the Rev. Mr. Bellew is a sad sinner. He did not preach—he gave a serio-comic entertainment. A handbill before us shows briefly the nature of the performance and the prices of the tickets of admission. Reserved seats were at three shillings. Central seats at two shillings. Area seats one shilling each. "Carriages" at "10 p.m." Omnibuses, very likely, every quarter of an hour. Strangely enough we find the same significant omission in the handbill that we noticed in the advertisement, as to the nature of the charitable purpose for which the money was to be taken. Charity begins frequently at home, and we are driven reluctantly to the conclusion that it began on this occasion at the home of the Rev. Mr. Bellew. Nor are the prices for admission kept within reasonable limits. Custom and propriety have assigned certain bounds in this respect, which it is undesirable that clergymen should be permitted to exceed. Penny clerical readings may be defended very reasonably, on the ground that it is a good thing to read first-rate books aloud to those who are not likely to be able to procure them, and that the penny which a poor man can afford to give will pay his proportion of the expenses of the room. Three shillings and two shillings a-piece are, however, large sums for a clergyman to take for any purpose at the doors. It is clear that the entertainment was not designed for the benefit of that class to whom the Gospel is ordered to be preached. No inconsiderable sum, in all probability, went into somebody's pocket that evening. A discreet silence rests upon this part of the performances. If the proceeds found their way into Mr. Bellew's pocket, or into the pocket of some one who is "farming" that gentleman's literary evenings, the proceeding is one which calls for the attention of the public and of Mr. Bellew's ecclesiastical superiors. The title given in the printed programme to the expensive entertainment is—"A Reading from the British Poets, by the Rev. J. M. Bellew, S.C.L." What is the meaning of S.C.L. we do not pause now to inquire. Whatever may be the significance of these three mysterious letters—in virtue of which Mr. Bellew for the nonce is clearly *vir trium litterarum*,—they probably have some connection with civil law, and imply that Mr. Bellew has somewhere studied it with or without success. We do not see in any case what they had to do with the Eyre Arms. We may mention, lastly, that the proceedings were divided into a "first" and a "second" part, between which there was "an interval of ten minutes"—an interval in which, at the Eyre Arms Assembly Rooms, so much might be done both by the performer and his audience. With this brief preface we shall ring the bell, draw up the curtain, and disclose the Rev. Mr. Bellew as he stood on the boards before the public on the eventful evening of Wednesday, the 30th of April:—

"PART I.

Eugene Aram	Hood.
The Volunteer.	(A modern development of patriotic feeling.)			
	Adapted from Hood.			
The Arsenal at Springfield	Longfellow.
The Dying Christian to his Soul	Pope.
The King of Brentford's Testament	Thackeray.
The Charge of the Light Brigade at Balaclava	Tennyson.

An Interval of Ten Minutes.

PART II.

Hamlet and the Gravediggers	Shakespeare.
The Doleful Lay of the Honourable I. O. Uwins	Bon Gualtier.
The Convent Bell	C. Swain.
Pains and Perils of Authorship	Jago.
The Marine Council of Trent	

A 'Pièce de Résistance,' being a History of the Seizure of Messrs. Mason and Slidell, on board the *Trent*, and a particular account of the diplomatic and military demonstration that followed; delivered at St. James's Hall, January 21st, with enthusiastic applause.

Carriages at 10 p.m.

RESERVED SEATS, 3s. CENTRAL SEATS, 2s. AREA SEATS, 1s."

We have no doubt that this bill of fare was served up in the most admirable manner, and that everything was managed as well as possible. Nor do we think the prices extravagant for what was given in return. If nothing else had been achieved by him in the course of the whole night, it would be quite worth three miserable shillings to hear Mr. Bellew recite the "Dying Christian to his Soul," and to watch him after having successfully "languished into life," burst vigorously into the King of Brentford and his excellent Testament. Nor was a lighter element wanting in the Attic apart. The sorrows of the Hon. I. O. Uwins were probably delivered with thorough feeling and *aplomb*. As for the Marine Council of Trent, which was given at St. James's Hall, January 21st, "with enthusiastic applause," we have no doubt that it was as amusing on this occasion as on the former, and

a tavern assembly-rooms are not likely to applaud merit less enthusiastically than their neighbours. We only hope, that like his antetype,—the Rev. Mr. Honeyman,—Mr. Bellew wound up his marine narrative by giving his listeners Messrs. Mason and Slidell sick at sea, with each of them quite distinct and natural. These and probably similar proceedings have, we understand, been taking place in different parts of the metropolis;—nor, indeed, has Mr. Bellew neglected to star it in the provinces. We have no doubt, however, that he finds it most lucrative and convenient to keep as much as possible to the omnibus tract of country. Like King Charles II., he has reason to bless and praise most of all the "Royal Oak." He must be a godsend to the proprietors of those happy taverns which bound the ambition of the Omnibus in each direction. Fun and harmony rule the roast on the occasions when the Rev. Mr. Bellew reads the "Dying Christian to his Soul;" and we have absolutely no doubt that when the rev. elocutionist arrives at the sad extremity to which his friend the "Dying Christian" is reduced, he will be able to sing almost in the words of another poet about nature and himself,—

"Her 'prentice hand she tried on cabs,
And then she made the 'buses oh!—
The happiest hours that ere I spent,
Were spent among the 'buses oh!"

Who is it, finally, that has an interest in advertising Mr. Bellew's public appearances, and that persists in doing so still, though Mr. Bellew does not "authorize" the advertisements? We do not suspect Mr. Bellew of selling his soul, which he probably retains for the same theatrical purpose as that to which the "Dying Christian" puts that spiritual part of him; but it is perfectly consistent with his retention of it that he should hire out his body for purposes of public entertainment. If this is so, we think it is really too bad. A minister of the Established Church is not a sacred elephant, that he should let himself out by the night. If a clergyman goes the round of the Eyre Arms and the Highbury Arms Tavern for profit to himself, why should he not attach himself to a circus, as travelling chaplain to the wild beasts, and feed in public with the other animals punctually at three? Why should not he sing comic songs at the Cider Cellars, or go on the stage among the *corps de ballet*, if he is to be allowed to make his fortune by reciting comic poetry at public rooms? Suppose that he went to instruct, or even to amuse the poor, or for any other charitable purpose whatever, we should say nothing. The price he puts on his tickets precludes that hypothesis. He evidently, therefore, goes,—as we are bound to assume until further explanation,—to make money by the speculation. We wonder whether his Bishop has been made acquainted with his various public engagements? As it is, we cannot help saying that the scandal—for to such Mr. Bellew's proceedings, unexplained, amount—calls for episcopal intervention. If no notice is taken of them, it will end by bringing discredit on the order to which this gentleman belongs, or professes to belong.

THE TWO COUNCILS OF ROMAN DIVINES.

A COUNCIL has always been the favourite nostrum prescribed by all sanguine and philosophical reformers of the Church, as the irresistible means of bringing about any change in that body. Have we not now practically got together at Rome an assembly of divines that really constitutes a Council; and what reason have we to hope that a mighty improvement is to come out of this unexpected contrivance? That the Catholic Church, so far as regards the temporal condition of the Papacy, is in a bad way, we all know; that the sweeping together from all quarters of the world the prelates who are now gone to Rome, must be distinctly assumed as the hoisting of a signal of distress by the old ship of St. Peter, is also pretty generally admitted. But in what particular mode this heterogeneous congregation is practically to help in bringing the Pope out of the scrape into which he has got himself and his See, is a point upon which clearer information would be desirable. In the first place, there is nowhere any serious attempt to persist in putting forward the original flimsy pretext alleged for the present convocation of bishops. We doubt whether even Cardinal Antonelli, with all his command of countenance, could keep his features from relaxing into a smile if he were, in answer to some indiscreet questioner, to try and fence off his impertinent curiosity by attempting to palm off upon him the official explanation. There has been no lack of saints made at various times in the Roman Catholic Church, and amongst them many far more famous than the obscure missionaries to Japan, who, on the present occasion, are to be promoted to the heavenly peerage. Yet no Pope before Pius IX. has ever thought of collecting together so many bishops to grace the ceremony of canonization. The fact is that, in the steps he has taken for this purpose, he has altogether broken through all the prescribed rules of the Church. Canonically, the Pope has authority to command the presence of the Italian bishops residing within a fixed distance from the capital of the Catholic universe. These bishops, however, the Pope, in his letters of convocation, distinctly dispenses with, while he proceeds to hold out extraordinary inducements to all other bishops, with the view of tempting them to undertake the pilgrimage to the foot of his throne. This circumstance must strike every one as a very peculiar deviation from what would seem to be the natural and obvious mode of procedure, if the Pope's only object were to collect together as many bishops as possible.

Nor will the official reason assigned for the odd exclusion of Italian bishops seem entitled to much weight in the eyes of those who know the present disposition of Italy. If the bishops are really doing nothing in Rome

beyond figuring as witnesses to the canonization of these Japan martyrs, the trembling solicitude of the Pope lest on their return they may be molested by the Government, and even deprived of their revenues, must be judiciously exaggerated. There is the greatest desire felt in Italy to give the priests every possible freedom of ministration, so that they may have no possible ground whatever to agitate against the civil authority; and such being the policy proclaimed by the Government, it is absurd to suppose that it could ever dream of stultifying itself by in any way interfering with the bishops for merely attending the summons of their primate. The real reason why the Pope has dispensed with the presence of the Italian bishops has been very different. It is not the Italian Government that wantonly interferes to prevent the Holy Father taking his sons to his breast, but the Holy Father himself would rather be relieved of their troublesome embrace, and would fain throw the blame of his unnatural want of affection upon other shoulders than his own. In fact, we have good reason to believe that it is the Pope's intention to get out of his suffragan bishops a declaration in favour of his own temporalities which may be published to the believing world as the unanimous opinion of the Church. Hence it is that he has made such vehement exertions to collect them; indeed, he has gone so far as actually to dispense with the periodical visit to Rome, in the case of those who will be kind enough to come on this particular occasion. We have heard often enough of haughty Popes who superciliously ordered about their inferiors with small ceremony, but we cannot call to mind a Pope who has ever condescended to implore, with bated breath, his subordinates to come and visit their poor forlorn Father at any special time. The bishops, however, whose company would be alone desirable, must be of the stamp of mind that will make no scruple about corroborating with vehemence the Pope's protestations that he cannot possibly fulfil his duties to God if stripped of any portion of the temporal endowment granted him by that most spiritual body the Congress of Vienna. But it is the Italian clergy who, from their personal experience of the bad consequences following from the Pope's temporal power, count most members opposed to its continuance. No doubt many of the Italian bishops would refuse to endorse any new declaration in favour of the temporal power which might be submitted to them: and this is notorious at the Vatican. It is the fear of such unpleasant dissent, jarring the desired harmony of the episcopal concert, which has induced Pius IX. to be considerate enough to excuse the Italian bishops from putting themselves to the inconvenience of visiting Rome; and to rest content with merely seeing about him the shepherds of ultramontane flocks. Those foreign shepherds are considered to be better adapted to the atmosphere and temper of the Holy See at this precise season. At least, such is the opinion of the Pope, who has accordingly been quietly preparing, against their arrival, the document to which he will beg them kindly to put their names. After all, what is to become of the boasted unity of the Church, if the bishops were to decline the duty of backing the Pope's paper? Still there was one difficulty attending the document in question. Although the Pope's purpose could not be satisfied without his having got out of his bishops some such expression as would virtually amount to declaring that the State created by the diplomatists of Vienna is a divine creation, and that a belief in this dogma was necessary to salvation, it was felt to be impossible to say this in explicit terms. The Court of Rome is a stickler about words, and therefore, although the thing was to be declared a dogma, it was to be so declared without the actual use of a term which would involve a palpable contradiction to what had been often said before. A select number of profound casuists were accordingly set very privately to work to compose a formula which should say all that was wanted by the Pope, avoiding as much as possible all plain and straightforward expressions. Amongst the divines who constituted the select committee for disguising this new article of faith so as to get it down the throats of the Catholic body in the least repulsive way, were Cardinal Caterini; Father Perrone, a Jesuit of repute; Mura, the General of the Servites; the Dominican friar Ferrari; and Don Salvatore d'Ozieri, late General of the Capuchins. The form upon which they hit as the best adapted for the purpose was, to declare the temporal power *indispensable to the full exercise of spiritual powers by the Church*. Thus the word dogma is successfully avoided, although practically no true Catholic will be able to look at the temporal state of the Pope otherwise than as a thing of primary holiness if he accepts it as *indispensable* to the exercise of that spiritual authority transmitted to his Holiness by St. Peter. It must be confessed that the divines who succeeded in inventing this formula have worthily upheld the reputation of the Roman schools for casuistic subtlety. The question now is whether the Pope will have the moral courage to persist in his intention to get the subscriptions of the bishops to such an opinion, or whether, in the last moment, he will not hesitate to enforce so monstrous an innovation. We shall soon know, for already the bishops are mostly in Rome, and the opening ceremonies of canonization have begun. It is a fact that the intended use to be made of this assembly has given rise to remonstrances on the part of the French Government, and these, coupled with the mysterious changes in the Emperor's tone as to the occupation of Rome, may possibly have the effect of making the bishops less disposed to endorse the pontifical declaration. Perhaps even Pius IX. might himself retreat at the eleventh hour, scared by the lowering signs of the times; nor would he for once be unwise if he should allow himself to be thus frightened out of his purpose.

While Pius IX., in all the pomp and majesty of ecclesiastical dominion, is thus gathering around his episcopal chair all the dignitaries of his Church to a Council, there is noiselessly busy elsewhere, beyond the walls of Rome, another assembly, which though without any of the appurtenances of pageantry and splendour, is practically a great council of divines—greater than any conclave of ecclesiastics since the Council of Trent, and far greater in spiritual power than any which Pius IX. could possibly create out of his episcopal parasites. We allude to the daily-growing action amongst the best sections of the Italian clergy against the secular policy pursued by the Court of Rome, and the growing combination amongst these to propagate their views and publish their protesting opinions. This is becoming, in the true sense of the word, a formidable concert. Until lately it existed merely in the condition of individual tendencies, without combination and correspondence. But now, under the direction and influence of divines of standing like Passaglia, Father Tosti, and others, point and method have been given to what before was vague and disconnected, so that rapidly a large section of the Italian clergy is coming to a clear conviction of being the strict champions of canonical orthodoxy in condemning the present attitude of the Pope. How serious the progress is which this movement has made, was shown by the fact that the Pope, at a public oration which he delivered at the Minerva last Lady-day, took the opportunity expressly to rebuke those deluded and self-forgetful priests who thought fit to write to him that he ought, for the sake of the Church, to sacrifice his temporal authority. The truth is that the Pope has been much shocked at the increasing number of appeals against his policy from those upon whose support he had reckoned. Gladly would he frown down these recalcitrant ecclesiastics, and brand them as reprobates,—as men without convictions, led away either by worldly seductions, or by the spirit of ignorant discontent. This is the language in which the great men at the Vatican speak of those who have participated in the clerical opposition to the doings of the Court of Rome. According to them, there is no sincerity in the opposition party. If in saying this the Pope's friends are giving expression to their inward belief, then the Court of Rome, in spite of its reputation for consummate cunning, is singularly ill-informed as to the true nature of what is going on amongst the Italian clergy. The movement against the temporal power is most serious—all the more that it is concentrated against this one point of ecclesiastical discipline, instead of having its force weakened by being directed over the unmanageable field of doctrines. At the very hour when the Pope, amidst the gorgeous assembly of purple prelates, will probably be trying to deceive himself into the fond conviction that he is still every inch the same invincible spiritual potentate as of old, that other unobtrusive but indefatigable brotherhood of Italian Churchmen will be actively engaged in combining and putting forth such a public manifesto as will put an end to the reckless assertion that the opinions it contains are embraced by some bad men without learning and without holiness. Thus we shall be able to weigh the merits of the two councils,—the splendid and official council of ecclesiastical grandees on the one hand, and the unobtrusive, hard-working, conscientious Churchmen, on the other; and we shall be surprised, indeed, if Pius IX., in his heart, when he sees what has been done by the latter, is not smitten with the secret consciousness that these earnest and holy men have dealt the Papal Court a wound which neither the profuse compliments of obsequious bishops nor even all the legions of the French Emperor will ever be able to heal.

ACCLIMATISATION.

THE desirability of adding to our somewhat limited series of domestic animals and cultivated plants, is a subject to which public attention has been frequently called of late years. When we consider that the progenitors of all the animals and plants now so well adapted to man's use were formerly in a state of nature like the wild species still around us, and that the number of subjugated species is almost infinitely small as compared with the vast number of unreclaimed members of the animal and vegetable kingdoms known to exist, there appears no reason to doubt that many other animals and plants might be reduced into domesticity, and made to contribute in a similar manner to the use and enjoyment of mankind, if proper measures were taken to carry out this object. This proposed process of domesticating new plants and animals has of late years been called "acclimatisation," the idea probably being that the subjects of these experiments are to be induced to bear a variety of climates, in order to be useful to man in the different zones of the earth's surface which he inhabits, instead of being (as is mostly the case with wild animals and plants) strictly confined to one particular locality. The founders of zoological and botanical gardens, who are now rapidly increasing throughout the civilized world, have all more or less kept in view the object of introducing new domestic animals and plants. Their primary aim, no doubt, has in most cases been to encourage the progress of natural history by the exhibition of the living forms of animals and plants, and to illustrate creation by collecting a series of the principal types of the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The value of the living specimen, which can be obtained, as a means of instruction, and its superiority in many points to that preserved in the cabinet or the herbarium, is abundantly evident. A live dog, we all know, is better than a dead lion. It is much better to study the king of the beasts alive, even in a cage, than such a caricature of him as is usually represented by a stuffed skin, even in our best-ordered

museums. ticular pain the introduc to add to few years pounds in Himalayas, zealous friend breed these, and by distr societies on of these fine attention to of the Africa report, have score of this an In France, the amongst other moths. The la the subject of tages over that has been cultiv them being tha and other shru never flourish. been founded There is no la Antipodean cor entirely unrep face. There is and other use tion for a futu some variety c we suppose, with as it would seem cal Societies of establishing a sp a remarkable pro their "Second Ar a few minutes. V leading article in and the *Gardener* minutes on its ana no doubt. The A derivative, works *prosim*,—as the La well the Eland ma al use during the grouse, which the country, can be re even if the promise name of a lady wel to have contribute income received fro all is well intende Acclimatisation of a creditable docum less connection with title of the society, acts of the two gro deal, reminds us son the three R's. Whe has been really acco Lindley's comments i explosion of wra First of all are print different parts of t the society. As the out by the Colon success even in receiv estimated at the animals, birds, fishes upon during the past which the society hav mented upon by other have failed to answer of the southern c a few months ago, which the Acc ship in China, and the Thames from board, which may be mutton. The fac humid climate. The

But, besides the display of a living representative series, particular pains are usually bestowed in zoological and botanical gardens on the introduction and propagation of such animals and plants as are likely to add to the domestic stock. The Zoological Society of London a few years ago sent out an agent to India, and spent many hundred pounds in importing into England a series of the game-birds of the Himalayas, which had been collected for the purpose by some of their zealous friends in that country. The Society have since then continued to breed these birds year after year, in their gardens in the Regent's-park, and by distributing the produce amongst their members and the sister societies on the Continent, are in hopes of eventually establishing some of these fine birds in Europe. The same society have also devoted great attention to the breeding of the Eland—one of the finest and largest of the African antelopes—and, as we learn from their recently published report, have within these last few years successfully reared upwards of a score of this animal, which seems to possess every requisite for domestication. In France, the Société d'Acclimation of Paris have turned their attention, amongst other things, to the introduction of new species of silk-producing moths. The larva of the Arrindy silkworm, or *Bombyx cynthia*, which is the subject of their chief experiments in this direction, has several advantages over that of the common *Bombyx mori* (the ordinary silkworm which has been cultivated in Europe since the sixth century), the most obvious of them being that it may be fed on the leaves of the Varnish-tree (*Ailanthus*), and other shrubs which grow in many climates where the mulberry can never flourish. In several of the Australian colonies societies have lately been founded for the purpose of importing new animals and plants. There is no large quadruped other than a kangaroo indigenous to the Antipodean continent, the important class of ruminants having been left entirely unrepresented by Nature on that portion of the world's surface. There is, therefore, ample scope for the importation of deer and other useful animals of this kind, in order to provide occupation for a future generation of Australian sportsmen, and a wholesome variety of food for the rapidly increasing population. Fired, we suppose, with zeal to emulate what is going on elsewhere, and dissatisfied, as it would seem, with the slow progress made by the Zoological and Botanical Societies of London, a body of gentlemen have lately set about establishing a special "Acclimatisation" Society in this country. It is to a remarkable production of the council of this association, which they entitle their "Second Annual Report," that we now invite our readers' attention for a few minutes. When we state that this document has not only provoked a leading article in the *Times*, but also caused a controversy between the *Field* and the *Gardener's Chronicle*, we are surely justified in bestowing a few minutes on its analysis. Of the benevolent aims of this society there can be no doubt. The Acclimatisationist, if we may venture to employ so long a derivative, works for a future generation,—*scriit arbores quæ sæculo alteri prosunt*,—as the Latin grammar used to say. It is hardly probable, however, well the Eland may thrive in this country, that its meat can come into general use during the existence of the present generation; or that the Prairie-grouse, which the Acclimatisation Society talk about importing into this country, can be rendered available for battues within the next fifty years, even if the promised operations are commenced without more delay. The name of a lady well known for her enthusiastic philanthropy, who appears to have contributed in one sum to the society more than their total income received from other sources, is of itself a sufficient guarantee that all is well intended. But whether the Report of the "Society for the Acclimatisation of Animals, Birds, Fishes, Insects, and Vegetables" (!) be a creditable document for any body of men professing to have more or less connection with science to put forward, is a different question. The very title of the society, embracing as it does this curious description of the subjects of the two great kingdoms of nature with which it is intended to deal, reminds us somewhat of the schoolmaster who proposed the toast of the three R's. When we turn over the pages of the report to see what has been really accomplished during the past year, we must say that Dr. Lindley's comments in the *Gardener's Chronicle*, which have produced such an explosion of wrath from the *Field*, can hardly be deemed unfair. First of all are printed half a dozen letters that have been received from different parts of the world, expressing 'sympathy with the objects of the society. As the greater part of them are official replies to a circular sent out by the Colonial Office, we cannot congratulate the society on its success even in receiving letters, especially when the promises made in them are estimated at the usual value of such documents. But to proceed to the "animals, birds, fishes, insects, and vegetables," which have been operated upon during the past year. The "Chinese sheep," for the importation of which the society have voted the sum of £150, have been already experimented upon by other persons several times within the last few years, and have failed to answer the expectations formed of them. An agriculturist in one of the southern counties who has tried the breed for some time, was, a few months ago, anxious to dispose of his lot for about half the price which the Acclimatisation Society appear to have paid for their sheep in China, and was unable to find a purchaser. Few vessels arrive in the Thames from Shanghai without a remnant of these sheep on board, which may be obtained without much difficulty for the value of mutton. The fact is that the breed does not appear to thrive in this humid climate. The ewes quickly lose at least a part of their productive-

ness, and when the mutton comes to table few people, we fancy, would hesitate to prefer "Southdowns" to "Chinese." Under the head of "Elands," which is the second item of the report, we are simply informed that nothing has been done owing to the cost of the experiment; and under that of "Deer," that Lord Powerscourt has a fine collection of various sorts of deer in his park, and has made some successful experiments in "hybridizing" them.

So much for the mammals. With regard to the birds of different sorts mentioned in the report, the progress of the society seems to have been equally unsatisfactory. We have little more than a list of vague promises, expected arrivals, and recorded failures. "Guans and Curassows," under which head the society appears to recognize only two species of birds, though every naturalist well knows that some thirty or forty members of this group exist in different parts of the American continent, may be seen in numbers in any Zoological Garden. But though great care has in many cases been lavished upon them, they are very "shy breeders," and but one or two instances are known of their having reproduced in confinement. The fact is that this form of the Gallinaceous order has been specially modified to inhabit the vast forests of America, and is essentially arboreal in its habits. It need hardly be added that it is eminently unsuited to this country, and that the society could not have selected a worse subject for their experiments. One would really think, from the grave importance attached to the importation of these and some of the other birds mentioned in the society's report, that there were no such things in the country before. But the fact is, that there are examples of every one of the species alluded to in our Zoological Gardens, and most of the continental establishments are equally well supplied. This ignorance of what other people are doing in the world can hardly be attributed to engrossing scientific pursuits of the gentlemen who prepared the report, for we notice that "crawfish" and "pearl mussels" are classed under the head of "fish," along with a proposed new pond-fish, the *Lucio Perca* (!), by which we suppose the Common Sander (*Lucioperca sandra*) of the Continent is intended to be indicated. The ridiculous mistakes about the "Chinese yam," and an *Arum*, which the Report appears to identify with the Arrow-root (*Maranta*)—belonging to a totally different natural family of plants—have been already commented on in the *Gardener's Chronicle*, and we will not weary our readers by a further catalogue of such absurdities.

We do not agree with the *Gardener's Chronicle* in considering "Acclimatisation" as a "chimera," but it is true enough that such documents as these bring the whole subject into disrepute with the public, and make it the laughing-stock of scientific men and others who know from experience the difficulty that attends the introduction of new animals and plants. If the society is to continue, let its members try some practical experiments, instead of writing letters in the *Field* and issuing to the world such stuff as this report of their council contains. Let them take a plot of ground near the metropolis, on a dry soil, and pick out for experiments a few of the animals and plants that offer the best prospects of a successful result in the way of acclimatisation. The sales of the produce, if the establishment be well conducted, would soon pay the whole of the expenses; and when it is once manifest that something *practical* is to be the result, there need be no fear of their obtaining adequate support from the British public.

MEN OF MARK.—No. XLII.

THE KING OF THE BELGIANS, K.G.

Few princes, either of ancient or modern history, have been born under a more brilliant and fortunate star than Leopold, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. When a young man of narrow income and slender pretensions, although of illustrious family, he married the heiress to the throne of England. He next espoused a daughter of the King of the French. He was offered the throne of Greece. He accepted the throne of Belgium. He has given peace and prosperity to his kingdom. He has consolidated the dynasty of his family. He has lived to be the Nestor of European sovereigns; and now, when the growing infirmities of age warn him that the sceptre must soon descend to a younger hand, he is sustained in his maladies by the sympathy of his subjects and the assurances of their loyal attachment to his throne, his person, and his family. His elevation has brought such preferment to his ducal house, that the most fortunate of all the existing great families of Europe is indisputably the house of Saxe-Coburg. One of his sisters espoused the Archduke Constantine of Russia, and in the ordinary course of events would have become Empress of all the Russias. Another sister became Duchess of Kent and mother of the Queen of England. A brother married one of the greatest heiresses of the Austrian empire, the daughter of the Prince of Kohary, and occupied the high post of Lieutenant Field-Marshal in the service of the Emperor. One nephew became husband of the reigning Queen of Portugal, and his grand-nephew is now the youthful king of that country. Another nephew became the husband of the Queen of England, "the noble father of our kings to be." His eldest son married an Austrian archduchess. He is also brought by marriage into near relationship with the Courts of Berlin and Madrid. So brilliant a destiny, exceeding all that fairies predict for their adopted children, or that romance writers imagine of the marvellous, cannot be traced without interest and profit. It excites no envy, because the head and founder of this great family, which fills so remarkable a place in modern history, has set its members an example which they have had the good sense to follow—of bearing his great estate with prudence and moderation. The scions of his illustrious house have sought distinction, not in turbulence and intrigue, but in the arts and accomplishments of peace, and in those domestic qualities and virtues which all men admire and may imitate.

Leopold George Christian Frederick, son of Duke Francis, of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, was born at Coburg on the 16th of December, 1790. His

education was carefully conducted by eminent professors. From his earliest years he evinced unusual capacity; and no English boy, with the battle of life before him, is more thoroughly impressed with the idea that he has his own way to make in the world, than was this scion of a ducal family. He, therefore, studied with ardour, and when he left his paternal home he enjoyed the distinction, afterwards attained by his nephew Prince Albert, of being the most carefully instructed and most accomplished prince of his day. Europe was then suffering under the scourge of war, and Prince Leopold determined to carve his way to fame by the help of his good sword. He entered the Russian service, obtained the post of general of cavalry, served with honour and courage in several campaigns, and received the orders of St. George and Maria Theresa. When Napoleon was sent to Elba, and the Allies entered Paris, Prince Leopold was an aide-de-camp in the suite of his brother-in-law, the Grand Duke Constantine. He subsequently accompanied the Emperor Alexander to England, and took part in all the festivities to which the visit of the Allied Monarchs gave birth. The story of his journey to England, and of his introduction to the Princess Charlotte, the only child of the Prince Regent, and heiress-apparent to the throne of Great Britain, has been told by Sir A. Alison with graphic minuteness and circumstantiality:—

"At Paris, during the stay of the Allied Monarchs, there was Lord —, who had filled with acknowledged ability a high diplomatic situation at their head-quarters, during the latter period of the war. His lady, of high rank, had joined him to partake in the festivities of that brilliant period, and with her a young relative, equally distinguished by her beauty and talents, then appearing in all the freshness of opening youth. A frequent visitor at this period in Lord L—'s family was a young officer, then an aide-de-camp to the Grand Duke Constantine, a younger brother of an ancient and illustrious family in Germany, but who, like many other scions of nobility, had more blood in his veins than money in his pocket. The young aide-de-camp speedily was captivated by the graces of the English lady; and when the Sovereigns were about to set out for England, whither Lord — was to accompany them, he bitterly lamented the scantiness of his finances, which prevented him from following in the train of such attraction. Lord — good-humouredly told him he should always find a place at his table, when he was not otherwise engaged, and that he would put him in the way of seeing all the world in the British metropolis, which he would probably never see to such advantage again. Such an offer, especially when seconded by such influences, proved irresistible, and the young German gladly followed them to London. He was there speedily introduced to, and ere long distinguished by the Princess Charlotte, whose projected alliance with the Prince of Orange had recently before been broken off. Though the Princess remarked him, however, it was nothing more at that time than a passing regard; for *her thoughts were then more seriously occupied by another*. Having received at the same time what he deemed some encouragement, the young soldier proposed to the Princess, and was refused; and subsequently went to Vienna during the sitting of the Congress at that place, where his susceptible heart was speedily engrossed in another tender affair. Invincible obstacles, however, presented themselves to the realization of the Princess Charlotte's views, which had led to her first rejection of the gallant German. He received a friendly hint from London to make his attention to the fair Austrian less remarkable; he returned to the English capital, again proposed to the English Princess, and was accepted. It was Prince Leopold, of Saxe-Cobourg. . . . In consequence of his elevation, one of his nephews has married the heiress of Portugal, another the Queen of England; and the accidental fancy of a young German officer for a beautiful English lady has in its ultimate results given three kingdoms to his family, placed on one of his relatives the crown of the greatest empire that has existed in the world since the fall of Rome, and restored to England, in hazardous times, the inestimable blessing of a direct line of succession to the throne."

This story, for which Sir A. Alison says he has authority, by no means exhibits the young German aide-de-camp in the most flattering colours, but rather as a princely fortune-hunter, of most impressible fancy, if indeed he were not ready at the period in question to propose to any body, and to dispose of himself to the best advantage. However, the circumstance, although of domestic interest in its origin, appeared to the historian of "Modern Europe" worthy to be recorded, from the vast importance of its ultimate results. Great princes, like heiresses and women in humble life, are seldom allowed to marry the object of their first attachment. Prince Leopold, probably, did not know that he was a *pis aller*, a degree or two less distasteful than the Prince of Orange. So the young German prince, who lodged over a grocer's shop in Piccadilly, and was appalled at the prospect of the drain of the briefest London season on his finances, thankfully accepted the preferment offered to him by Hymen. The English public had already made an idol of the Princess Charlotte. While the Prince Regent, on his way to the House of Lords, to open the Session of Parliament, was received with a dead and most humiliating silence, the Princess Charlotte was greeted with loud and repeated huzzas. Mr. Wilberforce, in a letter to Mrs. H. More, dated February 1, 1816, describes the Princess Charlotte as "a fine, fair, German-looking personage, with a sensible countenance and a commanding air." Mr. Wilberforce had heard a rumour, "though nothing certain is known, of her being likely to become the wife of Prince Coburg, a very handsome foreigner, of high blood, and, which is better, no dominions." On the 13th of March, 1816, a message was brought down to the two Houses of Parliament, announcing the intended marriage of the Princess Charlotte of Wales with the Prince of Saxe-Coburg. A liberal provision befitting the heiress-apparent to the throne was made by Parliament, and in May of the same year the marriage took place amid the general approbation and good wishes of all classes of the community.

The newly married couple lived in strict retirement, and in the enjoyment of the purest domestic happiness at Claremont. The Princess Charlotte had by this time become an object of extreme interest to the English nation. In her every hope was centred. With great abilities and rare attainments, the Princess was believed to possess a grandeur of mind suited to her royal birth and high destiny. The country regarded with extreme satisfaction the prospect of the accession of such a princess to the throne, and rejoiced that the connubial felicity denied to her parents had been vouchsafed in such abundant measure to the royal issue of an ill-starred marriage. Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world, the Princess was distinguished by a taste for the beauties of nature and the charms of retirement. She employed her hours in visiting, with her illustrious consort, the cottages of the poor, in improving her mind, and in acquiring under his wise counsel

the knowledge best adapted to qualify her for the possession of power and the cares of empire. She soon became more than ever the object of national solicitude and expectation. At the moment when the hopes and sympathies of the nation were most strongly excited, the shadow of the destroyer passed over the palace. The Princess gave birth to a still-born child on the night of the 5th of November, 1817, and four hours afterwards her husband was a widower. It has been said, with perhaps little exaggeration, that "never did the death of any merely human being produce a sensation so deep and so universal." Her domestic retirement, the warm affection which united her to the Prince her husband, her virtues, beauty, affability, and the rich promise of a brighter national future which was associated with her young life, combined with suspicions of mismanagement and want of skill on the part of her attendants, to cast a deep, intense, and permanent gloom over the nation. Lord Byron, writing from Venice, says in one of his letters:—"The death of the Princess Charlotte has been a shock even here, and must have been an earthquake at home. The fate of this poor girl is melancholy in every respect; dying at twenty or so, in childhood—of a boy too,—a present princess and a future queen, and just as she began to be happy and to enjoy herself, and the hopes which she inspired. I feel sorry in every respect." Lord Byron, in some of the finest stanzas of "Childe Harold," has recorded the passionate grief of "the land which loved thee so that none could love thee best." Nor did the poet mourn alone for the dead, or refuse his sympathy to the bereaved husband, whom Childe Harold thus apostrophises:—

"Thou, too, lonely lord,
And desolate consort—vainly wert thou wed!
The husband of a year! the father of the dead!

Of sackcloth was thy wedding garment made;
Thy bridal's fruit is ashes: in the dust
The fair-haired Daughter of the Isles is laid,
The love of millions!

We fondly deemed
Our children should obey her child, and bless'd
Her and her hoped-for seed, whose promise seem'd
Like stars to shepherd's eyes:—'twas but a meteor beam'd."

Prince Leopold passed the years succeeding the death of the Princess Charlotte in retirement at Claremont, the object of the deep and affectionate interest and sympathy of the British public. The death of the Princess was followed by the marriage of two or three of the King's brothers. One obtained the hand of Leopold's sister. Scarcely had the Duchess of Kent presented her husband with a daughter when the hand of death was laid upon him, and she was left in a strange land with her fatherless child. The Duchess naturally turned to her brother for counsel and direction at such a moment; and he found, in the pleasing companionship and society of his little niece, an object and outlet for those feelings of paternal tenderness which it had not been permitted to him to lavish on his own offspring. In Sir Walter Scott's Diary, under date May 19, 1828, we obtain an interesting glimpse of the Prince, the Duchess of Kent, and our present Queen, from which we may gather the influence exercised by Leopold in the early education and training of the Princess. Sir Walter says:—

"Dined by command with the Duchess of Kent. I was very kindly recognized by Prince Leopold, and presented to the little Princess Victoria—I hope they will change her name!—the heir apparent to the Crown as things now stand. How strange that so large and fine a family as that of his late Majesty should have died off, or decayed into old age, with so few descendants. This little lady is educating with much care, and watched so closely that no busy maid has a moment to whisper, 'You are heir of England.' I suspect if we could dissect the little heart we should find that some pigeon, or other bird of the air, had carried the matter. She is fair—like the royal family,—the Duchess herself very pleasing and affable in her manners. The evening, for a Court evening, went agreeably off. I am commanded for two days by Prince Leopold, but will send excuses."

The war of Greek independence was now approaching its close. Great Britain, France, and Russia interfered to deliver Greece from Ottoman misgovernment and tyranny, and the battle of Navarino decided the struggle. England had assisted the victorious insurgents with money, men, and arms. It was natural, therefore, that when the Greeks desired a constitutional monarchy they should turn to England for a prince familiar with the principles and practice of the British Constitution. Negotiations, with the acquiescence of the great Powers, were accordingly opened up with Prince Leopold. The Prince, on his part, felt the stirrings of a noble ambition, and was not disinclined to leave the retirement of Claremont to become a "ruler of men." But he was wise and sagacious as well as ambitious. He wished to make conditions and exact securities, before he gave up his luxurious ease and learned leisure. But his conditions were not ratified, and, after no little coquetting with the crown, Leopold declined the kingly dignity. The Greeks made a great mistake. What Greece might have become under two or three decades of King Leopold's rule it is impossible to say. But the wisdom and moderation with which he has administered the affairs of Belgium, and the success with which he has developed the resources of that country, lead us to believe that Greece under Leopold would by this time have undergone a complete regeneration. Perhaps she would have made herself mistress of the entire trade of the Mediterranean.

When France in 1830, as in 1848, gave the signal of revolution to Europe, the Belgians flew to arms, and delivered themselves from the odious domination of their rulers. The Dutch, having the superiority in troops, set to work to recover their territory, and would probably have succeeded in crushing the insurrection if England and France had not interfered. The revolution broke out at Brussels in September, 1830. On the 4th October the Provisional Government at Brussels proclaimed the independence of Belgium. On the 26th December a Congress had assembled at Brussels at which it was formally announced that the Allied Powers of Europe had recognized the permanent separation of the Belgian provinces from the kingdom of the Netherlands.

Intrigues were set on foot to annex Belgium altogether to France. In February, 1831, the Congress elected the Duke de Nemours to the throne of the new kingdom. Fortunately for Belgium and Prince Leopold, the negotiations fell entirely into the hands of Lord Palmerston, then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. At the Congress of Vienna, Belgium had been annexed to Holland in order to form out of the two countries one state

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state which would be able to check the encroachments and aggressiveness of France. To permit Belgium to become a mere appanage of France, was to destroy the barrier which had been erected at so much cost against French invasion. The English Government accordingly made such decided remonstrances against the offer of the crown to the Duke de Nemours that Louis Philippe refused the crown on the part of his son. A new election became necessary, and to Lord Palmerston's diplomacy it was mainly owing that the choice of the national representatives next fell upon Prince Leopold. That Prince was accordingly elected King of the Belgians by the National Congress of Belgium on the 4th of June, 1831. He accepted the crown conditionally on the 26th of June, and definitively on the 12th of July. On the 21st July the King elect made a triumphal entry into Brussels, took the constitutional oath, and formally ascended the throne. By the treaty of London, signed Nov. 15, 1831, the Courts of Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, and Russia, which had acknowledged the independence of Belgium, defined the boundaries of the new kingdom, and guaranteed the peaceful possession of his territories to King Leopold. Lord Palmerston, there is reason to believe, had provided the new King with a wife as well as a crown. France had been propitiated by a proposal of marriage between Leopold and the Princess Louise of Orleans, eldest daughter of Louis Philippe, and the marriage took place August 9, 1832, the bride being then in her twentieth, and the bridegroom in his forty-second year.

The matrimonial prosperity of the House of Saxe Coburg may remind the reader of an epigram once addressed to the House of Hapsburg:—

"Bella gerant alii; tu, felix Austria, nube:
Que sua Mars alius, dat tibi regna Venus."

"Let others fight, untaught to yield;
Thou, happier Coburg, wed:
Their realms were won in battle-field,
Yours in the marriage-bed."

Leopold, however, was not yet in full possession of his kingdom. The King of Holland refused to evacuate the citadel of Antwerp in accordance with the terms agreed on by the Allied Powers for the separation of Holland and Belgium. The French, with the consent of England, entered Belgium with a large army, and bombarded the citadel of Antwerp in Nov., 1832. The citadel was defended with true Dutch obstinacy by General Chasse, but surrendered on the 24th December, and the new King thereupon applied himself to the task of healing the wounds and repairing the disorders produced by the crisis through which the country had passed.

The country over which King Leopold was called to rule is about one-eighth the size of Great Britain, with a population of about five millions. Writers in all ages have agreed in describing the Belgians as restless and unruly—always treating their best rulers the worst, while the bad overruled them. Mr. Hallam, in his "Middle Ages," says that liberty never wore a more unamiable countenance than among these burghers, who abused the strength she gave them by cruelty and insolence. King Leopold found his subjects much given to the observance of religious rites and ceremonies—the higher classes often influenced by bigotry, and the lower debased by superstition. In the rural districts the clergy were, as they are still, regarded with fanatical veneration. The population is, moreover, composed of two different races, the Flemings and the Walloons, whose antagonistic prejudices and pretensions it was no easy task to reconcile. On the other hand, the admirable constitution decreed by the National Congress was well calculated to develop a feeling of nationality and to kindle a spirit of patriotism among the people. All governmental power is placed in the hands of the nation, operating by means of the representative system. The press is free, and no censorship can be established. By the Civil List, Leopold receives a dotation of 2,751,323 francs per annum. By the terms of the treaty of London the external security of Belgium was formally guaranteed, and it was declared to form a state perfectly neuter with regard to other States.

The trade and commerce of the country progressed under the wise and liberal policy of the King. Belgium, to its lasting honour, was the first State in Europe in which a system of general railways was planned, and executed by the Government at the public cost. Private enterprise came to the assistance of the Government, and from the central point at Malines the iron net-work spread itself round to Brussels and Liege, to Ghent, Bruges, and Ostend, and to Antwerp and intermediate towns. More fortunate than England, the actual cost incurred above the estimates of the Government engineers was only 10 per cent., while the outlay upon our London and Birmingham, Great Western, and some other great lines, was more than 100 per cent. above the estimated cost! Belgium is highly favoured by nature in its water communication, its rich mineral treasures of iron and coal, its extensive forests of oak and other valuable timber. In village and the skilful use of manures the Flemish farmers are a model to Europe. All these natural advantages were turned to good account. The spirit and industry of the people found free play under a free and popular Government. English, German, and Russian visitors were attracted in great numbers to Brussels, Ostend, and other Belgian towns. Manufactures flourished. The arts acknowledged the fostering care of the Court, and the Belgians began to feel a just pride in the growing wealth and importance of their country.

But conflict, discussion, and disagreement are the conditions of moral and political progress. Belgium, like all other countries, has her party of progress, as well as her retrogressive and reactionary party. The Liberal party and the Roman Catholic priesthood have been in continual hostility ever since the King ascended the throne. The question of education has been a fertile subject of excitement and dispute, and in some cases of disturbance. The struggle was waged with doubtful fortune. No sooner did a minister assert the prerogative of the civil power in matters pertaining to the question of education in the "intermediate schools," than his administration melted away under the influence of the Roman Catholic priesthood, and the Government was administered in subservience to the Church. Meanwhile the work of education progressed; agricultural and commercial schools were everywhere instituted, normal *ateliers* and popular libraries assisted to raise the working classes, and were followed by the most beneficial results.

Thus matters went on, when the French revolutionary tempest of 1848 broke out and menaced the tranquillity of every European state. French ideas and French literature so thoroughly permeate the reading classes in Brussels and other Belgian cities that a Brunswick imitation of the Paris

Revolution was inevitable. Leopold, unlike his father-in-law then in full flight from Paris, did not for an instant lose his head. A special train, filled with noisy half-armed *mauvais sujets*, left Paris to aid the good people of Belgium in the noble work of driving out their king and establishing a republic. The engineer had orders to stop the train at a short distance from the Belgian frontier, where the revolutionists proposed to alight, and to hoist the standard of revolt. But by a "mistake" which was never explained to the satisfaction of the propagandists, the train went on at speed to Quievrain, where a body of troops were drawn up and waiting to receive it. The muzzles of a thousand loaded pieces were presented at the windows as soon as the train stopped. The revolutionists were marched off to prison, their rusty swords and muskets were taken from them, and the abortive and ridiculous expedition met the fate it deserved.

Some demonstrations of a menacing character broke out, however, at Brussels, and one of the King's aides-de-camp galloped to Lacken with the news. The King instantly came to Brussels, and promptly declared himself ready to surrender the crown of Belgium, if such were the will of the people. The popular version of the story was that the King had his carpet-bag ready packed, and expressed so much indifference and *nonchalance* about going or staying, that the fury of the revolutionists began to abate. At all events, the King's frank and ready announcement had a good effect in strengthening the party of order, while it disarmed those who were most disaffected to the Crown. The result astonished all Europe. It was supposed, especially in Paris, that when the revolution took place in France, Belgium would be the country most likely to feel its influence, and follow its example. The very opposite occurred. While Austria and Prussia were convulsed, and insurrection was rampant at Frankfort, Belgium was, in fact, less agitated by revolutionary principles and movements than any country in Europe, except England.

It is no wonder if, under these circumstances, the seventeenth anniversary of the accession of Leopold to the throne of Belgium was commemorated with more than usual solemnity. In the previous year the King's sons (for his union with the Princess Louise had been blessed with issue) had alone assisted at the ceremony of the *Te Deum*. In 1848, the King, accompanied by the Queen and their august children, proceeded to the Cathedral, to acknowledge the signal blessings and mercies of that eventful year. The feelings of the Royal family could well be imagined, and their reception was most respectful. In September, the anniversary of the Belgian revolution of 1830, it spoke volumes for the discretion of the King, and the good sense and wisdom of his subjects, that the meeting between themselves and their monarch, on a day so suggestive of civil turmoil and disquiet, should have been marked with perfect cordiality. Sovereign and subject had alike reason to remember that thrones had tottered, and that kings had been driven from their capitals, in all the contiguous countries. Six months of civil war and commotion would have robbed them of all the toils of eighteen years' peace and industry. On the side of the King there had been no abuse of power; and England looked on the spectacle presented by Belgium with some pride at the thought, that the King's familiarity with the working of our own representative system had been in no small degree the secret of his success. Englishmen rejoiced that the early recollections of Claremont had been more potential than the later lessons of the Tuileries, received with deference, but admitted with distrust.

Claremont had been settled by Parliament upon Prince Leopold, on his marriage with the Princess Charlotte. The palace he has kept up as a possible asylum for his old age, but the annual allowance has been for many years repaid into the British treasury, minus the pensions to his old servants, &c. The home and refuge against a change of fortune which he had provided, but had not himself required, he was able to offer, in 1848, to the exiled royal family of France.

Since the accession of the Emperor of the French, the relations between France and Belgium have at times assumed an unsatisfactory complexion. Many French political exiles have taken refuge in Belgium, and as they denounced the Emperor and his Government in no measured language, and found means to convey the journals in their interest across the frontier, the remonstrances of the French Government became more and more pointed and energetic. At the Paris Conferences in 1856, Count Walewski brought before the plenipotentiaries of the Great Powers the necessity of repressing the excesses of the Belgian press. Lord Clarendon indignantly denounced the doctrine of assassination which had been preached in some of these journals. The Belgium Government declared that they would not consent to alter the charter of 1830, which declares the press free, but they took means to abate the scandal and danger by prosecuting some of the guilty parties, and expelling others from the kingdom. Belgium, like other countries, has not escaped the curse of large and expensive armaments. Her fortresses have been strengthened, and her garrisons increased, and everything denotes that the Belgians are resolved to defend their liberties and nationality against invasion from whatever quarter it may come.

The gigantic strides made by the manufacturing industry of Belgium during the reign of Leopold, is strikingly shown in the International Exhibition of 1862. The rich carpets of Tournay, Brussels, and Courtray; the exquisite lace of Brussels and Malines; the fine cloths of Verviers; the linens of Ghent and Oudenarde; the flannels and camlets of Ypres and Hodémont; the small arms of Liège—give ample proof of the ingenuity, intelligence, and enterprise of Belgium. Even in the lighter and more elegant branches of manufacturing art, such as porcelain, glass, and cabinet work, the Belgians have attained remarkable excellence. Their paintings exhibit a close approximation to the modern French school; but Leys and other artists have sent historical works of national interest which appear to be animated by a patriotic spirit, and to be the first step towards a national style and school. The Geefs and M. Kessel have won an honourable name for Belgian sculpture, which contributed many popular works of art in 1851, and now again in 1862.

A constitutional monarch may not be blamed for the sharp practice or breach of faith of his ministers, yet we cannot express the satisfaction which every Englishman must feel at the increasing trade and commerce of Belgium, without advert to the treatment which our manufacturers have received from the Belgian Government. A new and favourable commercial treaty between France and Belgium has just been concluded. Hitherto, in spite of the reclamations of our Foreign Office, the Belgian Ministry have refused to

perform their promises, and to admit our manufactures on similar terms. Earl Russell has not hesitated, in his place in Parliament, to charge the Belgian Government with a positive breach of faith in this matter. It is a great compliment to our magnanimity to know that at the first menace of danger to Belgium, on the side of France, or the first cannon-shot fired on the Rhine, the trembling Belgian Minister would hurry to Downing-street to claim the performance of the treaty stipulations, by which we guarantee King Leopold his present dominions. One breach of faith and one shabby evasion of an obligation is, of course, no excuse for another. Belgium, which is now the obsequious commercial ally of France, would then demand that we should declare war against her powerful invader, blockade the entire French coast, throw an army into Belgium, and be ready again to pour out the noblest life-blood of England upon those plains which have been the scenes of our greatest military exploits. It is pitiful to think that a nation bound to us by the ties of gratitude, for much of the peace, security, and progress she has enjoyed, should condescend to so much meanness, and meet her obligations in a spirit so pettifogging and so unjust.

King Leopold became a second time a widower in October, 1850. The children of his second marriage are brought up in the Roman Catholic faith. The eldest, Leopold, Duc de Brabant, heir-apparent to the throne, was born April 9, 1835; the second, the Comte de Flandres, was born in 1837; the youngest, the Princess Charlotte, was born in 1840. The Duc de Brabant led to the altar, in 1853, a young and fair Austrian archduchess, daughter of the late Archduke Joseph, Palatine of Hungary. There are two children by this marriage—a daughter, born in 1858; and a son, who in the course of nature will be Leopold III., born June 12, 1859. King Leopold sought an Austrian alliance for his daughter as well as his son, and had the satisfaction of seeing her espoused, in 1857, by the Archduke Ferdinand Maximilian, brother of the reigning Emperor.

The illustrious and venerable subject of this memoir hastened to England to offer to his royal niece the consolation and sympathy she so greatly needed upon her late sudden and terrible bereavement. Since his return he has suffered under a painful internal malady, from which his life was in danger. A temperate life and a healthy constitution have brought him through one or two severe surgical operations. Symptoms of pulmonary disease have, however, lent a new complication to his disease. Still the immediate danger is now removed; and hopes are entertained that a life so valued by the nation over which he reigns, and so dear to the royal lady whose earliest recollections are associated with his watchful care and kindness, will be still further prolonged.

Reviews of Books.

LIFE AND CORRESPONDENCE OF LORD AUCKLAND.*

Books of this sort have become very frequent of late years. Volumes upon volumes of "Correspondence" have, within a very short time been given to the world. Such publications are very useful in their way, but multiplied and prolonged as they now are, they neither deserve nor will command the attention of the public. At best they rather supply materials for history than a source of amusement. The future historian of the nineteenth century will welcome them with gratitude, not unmixed with dismay; the general reader of the nineteenth century will hardly regard them with especial favour. In short, while they are very valuable to those who read in order to write, they cannot be very acceptable to those who read for the sake of reading. And this book is an extreme specimen of its order. Not one-half, not one-third of the letters here published can be of any value to the most industrious historian. It is of course very easy to publish in chronological order all the letters found in the repositories of a third-rate politician. Book-making after this fashion is not a hard task. But then the books made are not the highest efforts of the human mind. A little trouble in selection might have made the "Correspondence of Lord Auckland" interesting and instructive. As it is, both interest and instruction can be found in these bulky volumes, but only by those who search diligently, and who are content to endure a good deal of tribulation in the search. We cannot see the use of printing letters the writers of which candidly confess that they "write because it is post day, but that they have nothing to say." No one surely cares to learn that Lord Henry Spencer was much bored at Stockholm, that he had only three peaches in his garden there, and that he considered it "good for man" to go down copper mines when he had the chance. The following letter, however, will be appreciated by those whose relations are about to marry, as a model of the manner in which congratulations should be offered:—

"Dublin, May 9th, 1799.

"My dear Lord,—Your Lordship's letter, upon the subject of Lord Hobart and Miss Eden, has afforded me the truest pleasure. I have ever thought you one of the happiest of parents, and your felicity will be increased. I believe Miss Eden would make a bad man good and a wretched man happy. I do not then think her influence will be lost on the finest temper, the purest heart, and the best understanding. I know not what virtue Lord Hobart wants, but I know he is free from every vice. He is discreet without being close; he is liberal without being extravagant; confidential, domestic, unsuspicious; and he is all good temper, good nature, and pleasantry. I think Lord Hobart to be more than envied in marrying Miss Eden, and Miss Eden to be more than envied in marrying Lord Hobart."

With this specimen of the stately aristocratic style, may be compared the stately literary style as exemplified in a letter to Lord Auckland from Gibbon:—

"St. James's-street, No. 76, November 27th, 1793.

"My dear Lord,—I should reproach myself with neglecting one of the best comforts of life, the enjoyment of instructive and agreeable society, did I not seek to visit Beckenham in my way to Sheffield-place. I must therefore ask whether it will suit with your other arrangements to receive me at dinner, either Tuesday, Wednesday, or Thursday next week, to keep me the next day, and to dismiss me the following morning after breakfast. I shall expect your commands, and in the meanwhile request that you would present my compliments to Lady

* The Journal and Correspondence of William, Lord Auckland. With a preface and introduction. By the Bishop of Bath and Wells. Vols. iii. and iv. Bentley.

Auckland, whom I revere as a second Eve—the mother of nations—though I am persuaded that she would not, like Eve, have eaten the apple.

"I am, my dear Lord, most sincerely yours,

"E. GIBBON."

The great mass of the letters, however, are from politicians and refer exclusively to political questions. They embrace the years from 1793 to 1814—an eventful and exciting time. Many are from our ambassadors abroad, several from our Ministers at home. Even Mr. Pitt contributes one now and then, but they are very few and far between, and moreover very short. The letters from the diplomatists are the most interesting, but they do not convey an exalted idea of the manner in which our foreign affairs were then conducted. On the contrary, they illustrate very strongly the smallness of the wisdom by which the British world at least has been often governed. Mr. Mortimer Eden, at Vienna, was pitifully hoodwinked by M. Thugut; and the only thing resembling an idea which seems ever to have occurred to any of our foreign Ministers was the brilliant conception of bribing all the mistresses at the various continental courts, in order that Europe might be permanently leagued together against France. There never was, in fact, a Minister worse served than Pitt, both in military and civil affairs. He had himself to blame: the evil was brought about by his subserviency to courtly and aristocratic influences. Men of this stamp could hardly be expected to write very powerful letters; and, to do them justice, they don't seem to have tried. Even Lord Auckland himself strikes us as having been more indebted to fortune than to natural gifts of intellect. He was lucky enough to be appointed the envoy to negotiate Pitt's Commercial Treaty with France—a position which brought him prominently before the public, and gained him the more substantial good of a pension of £1,500 a year. He was subsequently ambassador at Spain, and at the Hague, was created a peer of Ireland, and then a peer of England, and so increased his pensions as to call forth at one time remarks in Parliament. In home affairs he was less successful, never having risen higher than the office of President of the Board of Trade, which he held under Lord Grenville. And the editor of his "Correspondence"—the Bishop of Bath and Wells—"firmly believes that if his life were fairly and dispassionately written, he would be found to have been an able and honest public servant, as he was unquestionably in private life an amiable and excellent man." The honesty we may concede in spite of strange vacillations on the Catholic question, and a not very generous line of conduct towards Mr. Pitt. But the ability is a very different matter; we certainly fail to discover any trace of eminent abilities in these letters, or any signs of firmness or sagacity in the political career which these letters describe. Lord Auckland was a very respectable, and very successful man; but in mental power we suspect he was pretty much on a level with his diplomatic correspondents.

These volumes present the same picture as all other records of the time of the selfishness of our European allies at the beginning of the great French war. Russia was the most honest of all; for her reluctance at first to attack France originated in a sincere admiration for Napoleon entertained by the Czar. The policy of Austria and Prussia was dictated by pure selfishness. The brilliant exertions of Suwarrow in Italy were marred by Austrian jealousy, and rendered nugatory by Austrian unwillingness to give up the Italian provinces which she had wrongfully acquired. She was always hankering after Bavaria, and was with difficulty persuaded to defend the Low Countries. The safety of Europe was no consideration to the house of Hapsburg; Bavaria was more convenient than the Low Countries, therefore the latter might defend themselves against France, or might be defended by Great Britain, while Austrian troops were employed in annexing the Electorate. A certain "dignity of vice," however, has always characterized the unprincipled selfishness of the Imperial Court. It never had any virtue, but neither did it assume any. Prussia then, as now, was quite as selfish, far more hypocritical, and far more mean. Money was her great object. She kept the main chance before her with an admirable pertinacity. In the very crisis of the war the Prussian king suddenly refused to send his quota unless the other powers clubbed together to make up for him a subsidy of two millions. On one occasion, the intelligent diplomacy of Lord Malmesbury enabled this astute Court to get both money and territory at once. That eminent nobleman signed a treaty at the Hague, by which 62,000 Prussians were to join the allies in the Low Countries, for the trifling consideration of £300,000 down, and £50,000 per month. England actually did pay about a million and a half, which money, as well as the 62,000 soldiers, was employed, not in defence of the Low Countries, but in the subjugation of Poland. The professed objects of the war were, of course, the most exalted—to avenge the murdered Bourbons, to restore peace, and put down the declared enemies of order and civilization. The objects actually pursued were the acquisition of territory in the general confusion, and the acquisition of money from England under pretence of aiding the common cause. When one sees now conclusive evidence of the cool indifference with which all this was carried out, it becomes a pleasure to reflect on the deserved humiliations of Austerlitz and Jena. It was the great blunder of Mr. Pitt, as a war minister, that he never saw through his continental allies, and that he confided in men whom it was necessary to bribe in order that they might fight for their own liberties.

We get some curious glimpses of Mr. Pitt's character and policy, of his views as to the advisability of dismembering France, of his sanguine expectations of the results which would flow from the expedition to Quiberon and the Helder. It is but fair to say, however, that an animus against the great Minister seems to inspire Lord Auckland, and his Right Reverend editor, Lord Auckland's straightforwardness, at the time of Mr. Pitt's resignation was not altogether beyond question; so he very naturally took the line of attacking the Minister then, an example which the Bishop of Bath and Wells dutifully follows in his foot-notes now. Indeed, Lord Auckland thought proper to deliver a speech on what the editor, with not a very distinct notion of editorial responsibilities, simply calls "Lord Damocles's motion," containing the following passage:—

"It is not in human nature, nor history, that generals inured to great action and born to achieve them, can, without motives of good and superior importance, get into their post-chaise and quit their army in the time of action. I am obliged then, to have recourse to the words of a noble Earl (Carlisle), and to say that in this business a mystery, and something difficult for one man to explain to another. There is a veil through which the eye cannot penetrate. Time and circumstances may remove the veil."

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The Dean of Lismor Collection made by Sir J century. Edited, with Introduction and Addi

It is no matter for surprise that Mr. Pitt took offence at this, and broke off his intimacy with Lord Auckland. We are not indiscriminate admirers of the Minister. But there can be no doubt that on the Catholic Question he was right, and that in his resignation he was honest. At that period of his career he deserves not only admiration but sympathy, harassed as he was by a mad king, and surrounded by treacherous colleagues. In truth, Pitt was too wise and too statesmanlike for his supporters. His consciousness of his own superiority was strong, and he was at little pains to conceal it. His remarks on members of his own party were often far from complimentary. Thus he returns a letter of Burke's with the remark that it is, "Like other rhapsodies from the same pen, in which there is much to admire, and nothing to agree with." Mr. Pitt's love affair with Lady Eleanor Eden is naturally discussed at some length in the correspondence of the lady's father. From the information thus afforded us, it would appear that the dulness of Lord Stanhope's Life of Pitt is not relieved by accuracy. His Lordship has told us that Lady Eleanor was eight years younger than Mr. Pitt; she was in fact eighteen. And Lord Stanhope's friend, "fully to be relied on," has totally mistaken the correspondence which took place on the subject. So from being of the nature described by Lord Stanhope, we are assured by the Bishop of Bath and Wells, that "A long and painful discussion took place on the occasion;" and that the opposition did not originate with Lord Auckland: "It is entirely incorrect to state that Lord Auckland was in the slightest degree averse to the marriage on account of Mr. Pitt's pecuniary difficulties; on the contrary, believing that his daughter was attached to Mr. Pitt, he was naturally anxious that it should take place." We must say that this mysterious announcement greatly increases our curiosity to learn the real cause why the match was broken off.

We have a good deal of Lord Grenville in these pages. The following is an estimate of his character by Lord Liverpool:—

"Lord Grenville is the most extraordinary character I ever knew. He has talents of uncommon industry, but he never sees a subject with all its bearings, and, consequently, his judgment never can be right. He is not an ill-tempered man, but he has no feelings for any one, not even for those to whom they are most due. He is in his outward manner offensive to the last degree. He is rapacious with respect to himself and family, but a great economist with respect to every one, and everything else. I have thus given you what appears to me to be his true character: and I leave you to judge whether such a man can ever succeed as a political character."

The above opinion is malicious and untrue. Certainly Lord Grenville did not "succeed" in politics according to the Liverpool notion of success; that is, he did not condescend to retain office by changing his opinions, and casting aside his principles. But he did succeed in what most men think a higher aim—in maintaining his consistency, and in supporting measures which he believed essential to his country's welfare. The best letter, perhaps, in the whole book is one which he addresses to Lord Auckland, defending his views of the Catholic question. We never could see the force of Sheridan's witty remark on the resignation of "the Talents"—"that he had known many men knock their heads against a wall, but he had never before heard of any man who collected the bricks and built the very wall with an intention to knock out his own brains against it." The matter was simply this: Lord Howick had prepared a bill allowing Roman Catholics to fill any post in the army or navy. The King objected to this, and required from his Ministers a pledge that they would never introduce any similar measure; or, indeed, trouble him on this subject again. Considering the urgency of public affairs, Ministers agreed to drop the bill in the meantime; but refused to give the pledge required of them, and were in consequence dismissed. We confess we do not see how they could have acted otherwise.

Lord Grenville, to his credit be it said, always disliked and distrusted the Prince Regent. He never shared in the expectations of Lord Grey and many other Whigs, that when the Prince became Regent, the Whigs would be called to power. He saw from the first that the Prince cared nothing for those who were called his own friends—that, indeed, he cared for nobody except his mistresses, and not very much for them. In return, the Prince heartily disliked the Peer, and stated as his royal reason for this feeling that indecent conversation was not Lord Grenville's forte. There is something very dignified in the grand seigneur style of the following:—

"I have the happiness to be free from the Carlton-house festivities, and do indeed most perfectly agree in the opinion entertained there, that neither Lady Grenville nor myself are fit company for princes and princesses. God grant we may long continue so."

Those who are slow and conscientious readers will find Lord Auckland's correspondence exceedingly tiresome. Those who are fast readers, and proficient in the art of skipping, will, on the other hand, derive from its perusal some entertainment, and no inconsiderable amount of instruction. Nobody can be expected to forgive the Right Reverend editor who, by a little additional labour, might have made the book very interesting and really valuable.

ANCIENT GAELIC POETRY.*

THERE was a time when perhaps the most popular of all books was Macpherson's Ossian. It is now just a hundred years since, early in 1762, "Fingal" was first published, and "Temora" appeared in the following year. The literary world was taken by surprise; and the novelty of the subject, of the style (a little inflated, it must be confessed), and of the sentiments, charmed everybody. Nobody had hitherto suspected that the at least half-breed Gaelic of the ancient North were the authors of splendid epics. Within the course of a few years the poems which had been first given to the world in lofty quartos, made their appearance successively in octavos, twelvemos, and still more diminutive forms, and no collection which assumed the title of British classics was considered to be complete without

them. In the midst of this success a few critics ventured to examine this new candidate for fame with more caution; their number increased, and a growl of dissent began to make itself heard—a growl it may be called, for among the dissenters were one or two of the fiercest critics we have ever had. The whole character of the thing was contrary to anything that had been seen before; the names of heroes and heroines were new to everybody; the poems themselves displayed far more art in their arrangement and composition than are found among people in the condition of the primitive Gaels, and, which was the greatest error that Macpherson had committed, it was quite ridiculous to suppose that the wild Highlanders of the eighteenth century should have preserved the personal remembrance of personages such as the Roman emperor Caracalla, and the usurper Carausius, who are here introduced under the names of Caracul and Caros, in intercourse with the Gaelic heroes. The warmth of the dispute threw a new interest into the Highlands and the Highlanders themselves, which began to attract sentimental and literary visitors, and among the latter was Dr. Samuel Johnson, who returned with the conviction that the poems of Ossian were a mere fabrication. Macpherson met the charge with denial and with unsubstantiated assertions, which rendered the question more mysterious than ever; and the dispute has been sustained to our own time, although no sober and accurate critic would now stand up for the authenticity of Macpherson's Ossian.

The question was rendered more obscure by the ignorance of the subject displayed by the combatants on all sides. Johnson and others seem to have believed that Ossian and the other names of Gaelic heroes and heroines published by Macpherson were totally unknown to the poetry of the Gaels of the Scottish highlands, and that the poems translated by Macpherson had their only foundation in the fertility of his imagination. A better acquaintance with the antiquities of the Gaelic race has shown this to be an error. The condition of the Gaels of the middle ages, still not far advanced between the patriarchal and tribal states of society, was just that in which there exists a mass of old traditions, a mixture of facts and beliefs, which are absolutely mythic even to the personages which occur in them, and we have sufficient evidence that these mythic traditions existed among the Scottish Gaels several centuries ago, when they were, perhaps, objects of notice even more than at present. Fin (Fingal) and Ossian, and such names, belonged to this list of mythic personages, and the error of those who have usually written on the subject has been to transplant them from their mythic character, and fix them to times and dates. There can now be no doubt that the names of these personages are still celebrated in the poetry of the Gaelic race, whether in Scotland or in Ireland, not in complete and perfect epic poems like "Fingal" and "Temora," but in short pieces and fragments of verse, having no direct connection with each other, except as they have one common frame, the mythic traditions of the Gael. The history of Macpherson's fabrications seems now to be pretty clearly understood. He had obtained some of these fragments as repeated among the Highlanders in his time, and finding, by the publication of a few of them, that they were calculated to please the public taste, he formed the ambitious design of giving to the world a complete Gaelic epic poem, in which he worked up some of the fragments of real Gaelic poetry he had obtained, and employed his own imagination in filling it up. He received assistance from at least one native of the country well acquainted with the Gaelic language, and there is reason for believing that when Macpherson's publication was so vigorously attacked they actually composed a text in the modern Gaelic in answer to what he had published in English; if the objection had not been already forestalled by making the fabricated Gaelic text first. Macpherson's opponents, however, were wrong in asserting that there had never existed in the Highlands, poems which commemorated the names which were introduced in his pretended translations; and of this we have an interesting proof in the poetry published and translated in the book before us.

In the height of the controversy about Ossian, a remarkable manuscript, closely connected with the subject, came first into notice. It had passed, it is not known how, into the possession of the Highland Society of London, at some period in the last century, and it was given by them to the Highland Society of Scotland, at the time when the latter society appointed a committee to inquire into the authenticity of Macpherson's Ossian. It is now deposited in the Advocates' Library in Edinburgh, and consists of a large mass of Highland poetry, written in the original Gaelic, by or for James Macgregor, Dean of Lismore, an island off the coast of Argyshire, between the districts of Lorn and Morvern, and therefore in a country peculiarly favourable for collecting the older traditions of the Gaelic race. James Macgregor appears as Dean of Lismore as early as the year 1514, and from dates which occur in it a considerable portion of the manuscript is believed to have been written not later than 1512. We have here, then, a date which must at once dispel any doubt as to the perfect authenticity of its contents, and a mass of what was then the most valuable and interesting of the traditional poetry of the Northern Gaels, mixed with that of a more recent period, and even contemporary with the compilers of the manuscript. It is this curious volume which has furnished the materials for the work we are now reviewing.

The original manuscript of the Dean of Lismore contains about three hundred separate pieces of poetry, of which about twenty are ascribed to Ossian, or come under the head of Ossianic; a few are Mediæval, without professing to be of so ancient date, and the remainder are of later composition, and of very miscellaneous character. It is, in its way, a book somewhat similar to the Anglo-Saxon Exeter Book, allowing for some difference of circumstances, and for great difference of date; in the Exeter Book, too, there are some fragments of the older traditional poetry, mixed with later religious compositions and miscellaneous matter, but the religious matter predominates. It is evidently most desirable that such a manuscript as this, of such a date, should be printed and translated entire, because thus only would it present us with any just notion of the real condition of the Gaelic poetry of that age, of its various characteristics, and of the numerical proportion which the different classes of compositions held towards each other. We should, also, have been able to judge how much of the Gaelic poetry of the end of the fifteenth century was borrowed from the current poetry of other countries during or previous to the same period. These are all questions of interest; but, as Mr. McLauchlan was not able to publish the whole manuscript, we are obliged to remain satisfied with a selection, which we

* The Dean of Lismore's Book. A selection of Ancient Gaelic Poetry, from a Manuscript Collection made by Sir James Macgregor, Dean of Lismore, in the beginning of the Sixteenth century. Edited, with a Translation and Notes, by the Rev. Thomas McLauchlan, and an Introduction and Additional Notes by W. F. Skene, Esq. 8vo. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas.

can, of course, consider only as the selection of the editor of the printed book.

As might be expected, Mr. McLauchlan has printed all the Ossianic poetry, as well as the old traditional poetry, and for this we cannot be otherwise than thankful. We cannot spare room to discuss the antiquity of this poetry, which has grown up gradually through the tongues of successive generations of bards, with whom it must have continually expanded and been frequently modified; and Ossian the bard was no doubt as purely a mythic personage as Finn the hero. Hence the judicious antiquary cannot but smile when he is told gravely that the author of one of the poems in this book, Connal Cearnach McEdirskeol, "the most ancient of all the Ossianic poets," "was contemporary of Cuchullin, who flourished, according to Irish historians, in the first century." The incongruity of dates in this poetry is felt even in the poetry itself, where Ossian, pretending to have lived in the second century, is brought (or, in fact, brings himself) into frequent and familiar relations with St. Patrick, who is placed in the fifth century. These pieces prove the long existence among the Highland Gaels of such poetry as that which suggested to Macpherson his well-known fabrications: they contain Gaelic mythic names such as he has introduced; but here the comparison ends, and we find no traces of names of Roman emperors, such as a Caracul or a Caros. Among their favourite subjects are great hunting matches and warlike exploits, especially songs of triumph over victories or successful expeditions, and laments over chiefs who had fallen. Other subjects, some of them of apparently mystic character, are worked into this mythic poetry, which would at times bespeak no very remote age for its composition. One of the most curious of these is a poem put into the mouth of Caoilte MacRonan, a follower and friend of the great hero, Finn. Finn had been captured by Cormac, king of Ireland, who had carried him a prisoner to Tara; and thither Caoilte, at the head of the Feinn, Finn's subjects, proceeded to his rescue, committing great havoc on the way, yet, when he arrived there, he was obliged to purchase the captive. The purchase-money was to be a pair each of all the wild animals in Ireland, and Caoilte goes on at great length to enumerate them. We select a few of these by way of example. "I brought," he says,—

"Two rabbits from Sith dubh donn,
Two wild boars from Clusidh chur,
Two cuckoos from Drum a daive,
Two grey birds from Laigheande,
Two lapwings from Lanan Furrich,

Two woodcocks from Craobh maidh,
Two hawks besides from Sliabh glé,
Two grey mice from Limerick,
Two otters from the Boyne," &c.

The object of these verses is evidently to assist the memory in remembering the names of all the animals living in Ireland, and of the places where each was to be found, and the idea was evidently borrowed from the pairs of animals taken by Noah into the ark. It belongs to a class of writings which were in vogue in France and England from the thirteenth to the fifteenth centuries. We may remark that these mythic and Ossianic poets seem clearly to establish two things: 1, the ethnological fact of the derivation of the Scottish Gael from the Irish; and 2, the historical fact of the close relationship and intercourse between the Scottish and Irish Gael till a late period of the Middle Ages. We may notice another short poem in this volume, which the editor describes as "a curious episode in Fenian history." Finn one day, with six of his courtiers and their six wives, had a drinking bout, at which the women got drunk, and then so far forgot themselves as severally to make boasts of their superior chastity. In the midst of their revelry, a maiden suddenly appeared, bearing a seamless robe, and, on being questioned, said that it possessed the virtue that, if placed on the person of a female, it would not cover her unless she were chaste. The men were anxious for the trial, and the ladies, still under the excitement of their carouse, yielded boldly, but the robe, tried in succession, exposed their bodies in an unbecoming manner, with the exception of one, who had been the only one who had not boasted of herself. Any one acquainted with the Mediæval literature of Europe will recognize at once in this "curious episode in Fenian history" an imitation of the well-known story of the *Cort-mante*, which figures so often in the poetry of France and England during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. It will be thus seen how necessary it is to make ourselves acquainted with the whole Mediæval literature of western Europe, before we can form any correct judgment of one branch of it.

The miscellaneous part of the Dean of Lismore's book is still more capable of illustration from the Mediæval literature of France and England, and we regret that we have not more of it printed. It consists of satires, especially directed against the female sex, sometimes marked by caustic humour like that of Dunbar and the Lowland poets of his time, and often coarse; of metrical aphorisms, or wise sayings; of moral and religious verses; and, among many other things, of short pieces on contemporary events, some of these of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth centuries. One of the most singular of these aphoristic poems is the work of a poet named Phelim McDougall, of whom nothing appears to be known; but some of the allusions would lead us to conclude that he was not older than the fifteenth century. It is an enumeration of things which are not good, among which we are told that it is—

"Not good to be of ill-famed race;
Not good is a dirty woman;
Not good to write without learning;
Not good are grapes when sour;

Not good is a bishop without warrant;
Not good is a blemish on an elder;
Not good a priest with but one eye;
Not good a parson, if a beggar;

Not good is a woman without shame;

Not good is a harper without a string;
Not good is fighting without courage;
Not good is entering a port without a pilot;
Not good is a maiden who backbites;

Not good is neglecting the household dogs;
Not good is disrespect to a father;
Not good is the talk of the drunken;
Not good is a knife without an edge."

And many others, all which we duly recommend to the consideration of Mr. Martin Farquhar Tupper. The following may come under the title of an epigram—it is rather a cutting reflection on monastic morality:—

"I myself, Robert, went
Yesterday to a monastery,
And I was not allowed in,
Because my wife was not with me!"

Among the short poems on contemporary events, one has a peculiar historical interest. It is anonymous, but internal evidence shows that it was addressed to Archibald, Earl of Argyle, Chancellor of Scotland, when he was raising his clans in the highlands to make war on the English. The poet urges him

to act boldly, and to carry destruction among the "Saxons," and, in a spirit of ferocity which reminds us of many old stories of border forays, he says:—

"Suffer not a Saxon hence to live,
After thou overcom'st them;
Burn all their women, ugly in form;
Burn their children, every one;
Burn their black huts, burn them all;
Drown their warriors in their streams,
When their accoutrements are burnt," &c.

After these verses were written, and inserted in the dean's book, the fatal battle of Flodden was fought, and Archibald, Earl of Argyle, with many a clansman of his, lay among the slain.

We have hitherto spoken more of "The Book of the Dean of Lismore," and of the interest of its contents, than of the volume published by the Rev. Mr. McLauchlan and Mr. Skene. We will, therefore, add, in conclusion, our opinion that it appears to be extremely well edited and translated; that it is accompanied with an excellent introduction and useful notes; and that it displays the abilities of excellent Gaelic scholars, and is a very valuable contribution, not only to the literature of the Gael, but to Mediæval literature in general. We only regret that there is not more of it.

FREYTAG'S PICTURES OF GERMAN LIFE.*

ENGLISH readers have much reason to feel indebted to Mrs. Malcolm for her translation of M. Freytag's interesting and instructive book, the "Pictures of German Life." She has done her work as a translator extremely well. M. Freytag's German is, it is true, not difficult; but to make a translation from the German into easy and agreeable English is by no means a simple thing, and when we say that Mrs. Malcolm has given us a book so pleasing in style, and so readable that we almost forget that it is a translation, we cannot give her higher praise.

The book, on its publication about eighteen months ago, excited great interest throughout all Germany. Since 1848, social and political questions have become paramount to all others in the minds of the youth and the intellect of Germany. An eager and impatient ardour to work out in their own time, what is infallibly the ultimate destiny of their race, has become the absorbing passion of all the energetic and imaginative minds of that great nation. M. Freytag's eloquent work touches the key-note of these sympathies, and has accordingly been received with much enthusiasm. The object of the distinguished author, as the translator happily says in her preface, seems to have been to convey a lesson, a warning, and at the same time an encouragement to his countrymen, derived from the experience of the past; whilst he demonstrates to other nations how it is that a people so superior in intellectual power has remained so far behind in social and political development.

The scheme on which the author has framed his book is a happy one. He has selected a number of authentic records of the olden times, in which the private life and the feelings of the writers are portrayed, and has arranged them according to periods and according to the position in life of the several writers. These records are strung together by our author, and are accompanied by a narrative of the history of the times and the circumstances under which these several records were written. The work, in short, is a species of history presented in a very pleasing and interesting form. A light is thrown on events in social and political history which have not been hitherto noticed, and an insight is given into the gradual development of the mind of the German people. The every-day life of the German of three hundred or four hundred years ago is given in his own language. He tells his story in his own words, and shows how he felt, suffered, and lived.

The earliest of the records selected by M. Freytag dates from the year A.D. 1425, and is the narrative, by an eye-witness, of the atrocities which were committed in Silesia during the Hussite war. This subject he makes the occasion of a short account of the colonization of the Slave country east of the Elbe by the Germans, during the thirteenth century. A striking difference took place in the case of Silesia from what occurred in the other Slave countries, such as Prussia. In them the unfortunate Slaves were crushed by the iron hand of the German conquerors, and were compelled to adopt German habits of life, but Silesia became the centre of a quiet and peaceful colonization. A race of Polish princes was paramount in Silesia at that period, and it was by their invitation that the Germans settled in the country. The two races continued to live peaceably together, but the German civilization gradually displaced that of their ruder brethren. Meanwhile, however, a great Slave population rose up in Bohemia in the very centre of Germany, with Prague for its capital. German culture, however, showed every symptom of becoming predominant in Bohemia also, when an energetic reaction of Slave popular feeling was roused against the Germans and the Roman Catholic Church. The Bohemians were soon after—in A.D. 1420—driven to desperation by a great massacre which was ordered by the reckless German Emperor at the head of the orthodox fanatics. Hence arose the Hussite war, which was carried on on both sides with the most frightful atrocities, and was not confined to Bohemia, but spread into the adjoining countries. Silesia did not become thoroughly German till it was conquered by Prussia. The question of nationalities is now beginning to assume such proportions that these details are full of value.

The narrative of a lady of the Court of Hungary, A.D. 1440, forms the subject of another chapter. In a very graphic manner she tells how, at the bidding of her widowed Queen, she secretly stole for her infant sovereign the Hungarian crown from the possession of the rebellious magnates, and how she carried him through the swamps of Hungary to Weissenburg, where he was crowned with all due formalities by the Archbishop of Gran. The description of the coronation of the infant sovereign is very amusing, and given with much detail.

With the sixteenth century began the greatest spiritual movement that ever roused a nation. This century has for ever impressed its seal on the spirit and temper of the German people. The whole powers of the nation were engrossed in a passionate struggle; but in consequence of unfortunate political and religious divisions, in which German was divided against

* Pictures of German Life in the Fifteenth, Sixteenth, and Seventeenth Centuries. By Freytag. Translated by Mrs. Malcolm. 2 vols. Chapman & Hall.

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German, a most fearful civil war arose, which terminated in a general exhaustion and lassitude. A deep chasm was brought about at that time between the new and the middle ages. The state polity, rights, and municipal laws of many of the German states now date from that period; so that the oldest of the proud nations that arose from the ruins of the Roman Empire is now in many respects the youngest member of the European family. "But whatever," says M. Freytag, in a passage which shows his political longings, "may have been the influence of the sixteenth century on the political formation of the Fatherland, every German should look back to it with respect, for we owe to it all which now is our hope and our pride:—our power of self-sacrifice, our morality and freedom of mind, an irresistible impulse for truth, our art and our unrivalled system of science, and lastly, the great obligation which our ancestors have imposed on us of accomplishing what they failed in. It is especially now, in the midst of a political struggle for German national life, that it would be useful to us to consider how this struggle began three centuries and a half ago." To quote our author's eloquent account of the many causes which contributed to rouse the German mind into a spirit of active inquiry and restlessness about the beginning of this century would occupy more space than we have at our command; we must, therefore, rest satisfied by calling to it the attention of our readers.

As might be expected, many of the narratives selected by M. Freytag are of the sixteenth century. One of them, dated A.D. 1509, is the account of a travelling student, by birth a shepherd-boy, of Visp, in the Valais, who travelled to Munich and Dresden, and, after many wanderings and ups and downs in life, became a celebrated printer and schoolmaster at Basle. "It was among the thousands," says M. Freytag, "who, like this boy, thronged to the Latin schools, that the new movement found its most zealous followers. These children of the people carried from house to house, with unwearied activity, their new ideas and information—great was the influence exercised by these men on the small circles around them. Some years afterwards, they, together with the poor students of divinity, who spread themselves as preachers over all Germany, became a great society; and it was those Democrats of the new teaching who represented the Pope as anti-Christ in the popular play, harangued the armed multitudes of insurgent peasants, and made war on the old Church in printed discourses, popular songs, and coarse dialogues."

The narrative of a young Franciscan monk, who afterwards became an intimate friend of Luther, shows the mental struggles of a young man who, having been induced by his youthful enthusiasm to enter into a monastery, found there only new doubts, and was finally, like Luther, alienated from the Romish religion by the shameless sale of indulgences.

The great Luther came prominently forward as a Reformer about the year A.D. 1517, and two chapters are devoted to him. The former contains two authentic narratives, showing how his peculiar character worked upon impartial contemporaries. One of them is the testimony of a noble Benedictine monk, who never personally knew Luther; the other is the graphic account by a young Swiss student of his first accidental meeting with Luther, while on his journey to Wittenburg.

M. Freytag does not pretend to give the life of Luther; his wish has been only to describe shortly how he became what he was, and how it was granted to him to exercise such an influence over his contemporaries and on after times.

"Up to the year A.D. 1517," he says, "he had published little, but after that he became not only the most copious but the most popular writer of Germany. By the energy of his style, the power of his arguments, the fire and vehemence of his convictions, he carried all before him. No one had as yet spoken with such power to the people. His language adapted itself to every voice and every key, sometimes brief, terse, and sharp as steel; at others with the rich fulness of a mighty stream his words flowed on the people; and a figurative expression or a striking comparison made the most difficult things comprehensible. He had a wonderful creative power, and pre-eminent facility in the use of language: when he took his pen his spirit seemed to emancipate itself; we perceive in his sentences the cheerful warmth that animated him, and they overflow with the magic creations of the heart. This power is very visible in his attacks upon individual opponents, and was closely allied to rudeness, which caused much perplexity to his admiring contemporaries. He liked also to play with his opponents; his fancy clothed them in a grotesque mask, and he rallied, derided, and hit at this fantastic figure in expressions by no means measured and not always very becoming. But the good humour which shone out from the midst of these insults had generally a conciliatory effect, though not upon those whom they touched. Scarcely even do we perceive any small enmities, but inexhaustible kindness of heart. Sometimes, forgetting the dignity of a Reformer, he played antics like a German peasant child, or rather like a mischievous hobgoblin. How he buffeted his adversaries! now with the blows of an angry giant's club, now with the rod of a buffoon. He delighted in transforming their names into something ridiculous. . . . It cannot be denied, we fear, that it was this alloy to the moral dignity of his character that acted as the salt which made his writings so irresistible to the ancient Germans of the sixteenth century."

This description of the great ex-monk and Reformer may appear novel to many of our readers. The light in which he is presented contrasts most sharply with the sternness and asceticism of the leaders of our own Reformation. We believe, however, that M. Freytag has hit off with perfect correctness the character of the earnest, energetic, and powerful, but at the same time humorous and, at times, even rollicking Reformer. The whole of his chapter on Luther is admirable.

The narrative written by the agents of the Dukes of Pomerania, descriptive of all that took place at the meeting of the Diet held at Augsburg, A.D. 1547, whither all the princes of Germany had come to pay their respects to their new emperor, Charles the Fifth, reminds us of a letter of our own correspondent, detailing similar scenes in our own year of grace.

In another chapter we have the life of a Mecklenburg family which, at the end of the fifteenth century, migrated from the village to the city, and in the third generation became the ruling family in a great commercial town. It may be seen from the narrative, that though family life was not then deficient in hearty and native cheerfulness, yet the conception of life and duty was rough, and the amount of benevolence small, though family feeling was strong.

The account by a young doctor of his wooing, his betrothal, and his marriage, A.D. 1557, is given in another chapter, and shows in detail the several solemn family negotiations and ceremonial formalities with which marriage

was from a very early period attended in Germany. The respect for women and chaste family life was considered by the Romans the highest quality of the Germans. M. Freytag is of opinion that even Christianity could not place women and marriage in a higher position; but that, on the contrary, its ascetic tendencies tended to lower them.

Other narratives lay before us in their everyday life the great merchant-princes of Germany of the sixteenth century, the Fuggers of Augsburg, and the Glauburgs of Frankfort. There are also given autobiographies of three of the best known of the noble German condottieri of the same century. The lower nobility, says M. Freytag, had been, since the time of the Hohenstauffen, a misfortune to Germany; and even with the most favourably disposed judgment, it would be difficult to ascribe to the landed nobility of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and the first half of the seventeenth centuries, any beneficial influences on any one of the great currents of life in Germany.

The German ideas of the Devil in the sixteenth century form the subject of a very curious chapter. On adopting Christianity the Germans had transferred many of the recollections of their heathen deities to their new faith. The fiendish Helia, for instance—whence our Hell,—was the goddess of the dead. The Hexen, or witches, who under the old heathen system of religion were the priestesses of this deity, were transferred to the new system of religion. The Western Church, in the beginning of the middle ages, kept itself, on the whole, comparatively pure from this chaos of gloomy conceptions; it condemned them as devilish, but punished them on the whole with mildness. It was not till later, when the narrowness of the hierarchical system drove men into dissent, that fanatical monks disseminated the odious notion that the devil, as ruler of the witches, held intercourse with them at nightly meetings, and that there was a formal ritual for the worship of Satan. According to popular belief the connection of man with the devil was of three kinds;—he either renounced the worship of God for that of the devil, swearing allegiance to him and doing him homage, like the witches and their associates; or he was possessed by him, a belief derived by the Germans from Scripture; or men might conclude a compact with the devil, binding both parties under mutual obligations. In the latter case men signed away their souls in a deed written with their own blood, and in return the devil was to grant to them the fulfilment of all their wishes upon earth,—success, money, and invulnerability. The source of this tradition is of purely German origin. It is also peculiar to the German tradition that the devil endeavours to fulfil zealously and honestly his part of the compact, and that the deceiver is man. Luther himself was deeply imbued with the popular superstition respecting the devil. His indignation, however, was roused by the business-like and immoral way in which the devil was defrauded of his part of the contract by certain pious observances on the part of the Christian of the old church. By his vehement preaching of the doctrine of St. Augustine, the result was that, after the sixteenth century, those men who had concluded a compact with the devil were generally supposed to be carried off by the devil. The end of Dr. Faustus, for instance, is well known.

The period of the Thirty Years' War fills up many pages in the second of M. Freytag's volumes. The year 1600 dawned upon a people who had gone through a vast change in the last century. Public opinion had then become an important engine; news began to be disseminated in small flying leaves. These sheets were published at first irregularly, but soon after, in A.D. 1612, newspapers were published in Germany in a certain degree of continuity. The political state of Germany was, however, unsatisfactory. Discontent was general, and a disposition to prophesy evil was a significant sign of the times, when, in A.D. 1618, the war, called from its duration the Thirty Years' War, burst like a thunder-cloud over Germany. The opposition between the interests of the House of Hapsburg and of the German nation, and between the old and new faith, led to the bloody catastrophe. We are sorry that our limits prevent us from giving any idea of the great mass of interesting matter which M. Freytag has brought together. His account of the wild and undisciplined armies of the time, the Landsknechte and the dissolute mercenaries, with their great array of sutlers, women, and retainers, will well repay a perusal. Friends and foes suffered equally from their rapacity. The peasants and the villagers were ruined by forced contributions and plunder, and the population decreased with frightful rapidity—many villages were abandoned—the people, in short, reached the lowest depths of misfortune. But few accounts are to be found in village records and parish books, but they are sufficient to show the utter prostration of the German people before the peace of A.D. 1648.

The war had so fearfully loosened the bonds of society in Germany, that after the peace, fortune-hunters, rogues, and adventurers increased to an extraordinary extent, and spread over the whole country. Jugglers, strollers, and gipsies, were, of course, common in Germany at a much earlier date. M. Freytag is of opinion that strolling musicians had exercised an important influence on the progress of epic and lyrical poetry. The whole of his chapter on the subject of rogues and adventurers is very interesting. We are prevented by space from noticing it at any further length.

Those of our readers who have visited the German baths will be amused by four narratives of the mode and habits of bath life at Baden in the neighbourhood of Zurich, one of them written in the fifteenth century, a second in the sixteenth, a third in the seventeenth, and a fourth in the eighteenth century.

We cannot conclude this hasty notice without thanking Mrs. Malcolm for the book she has given us, and congratulating her on the manner in which she has discharged her task, and done her work as a translator.

ACROSS THE CARPATHIANS.*

THIS book is apparently the work of a young lady who has returned home after having travelled for some time in the East of Europe. It can hardly be called a very interesting work, but it is by no means a bad one. It is very unequal: some parts of it are particularly good, others do not rise above mediocrity. Take it as a whole, it is not entitled to great positive praise, but it certainly is entitled to negative praise, and in no stinted measure. The ordinary book-making tourist has a way of enlarging on the preliminaries

* Across the Carpathians. Macmillan & Co.: Cambridge and London.

of his tour. He fills half a dozen chapters with his voyage across the Channel, and another half-dozen with his undigested impressions of foreign men and manners. The authoress of "Across the Carpathians" is entirely free from that weakness. She opens her narrative at Presburg, and closes it at Cracow. Her book is equally free from many faults that are only too common in the earlier literary efforts of most young lady authoresses. From beginning to end, with the exception of a few uncalled-for Scotticisms, and such expressions as "excruciatingly clean" and "mighty little," there is nothing to offend the taste of the most fastidious critic. There is no unnatural enthusiasm, no spurious excitement, no attempt at high-flown "English prose," and nothing approaching to strong-mindedness or vulgarity. When young ladies come home from their travels, and set about to write an account of them, they seem generally to follow one of two courses. They either take the line adopted by the "unprotected females" who published, some years ago, an account of their doings in Norway and Sicily, or that adopted by the authoress of "Egyptian Sepulchres and Syrian Shrines." If the former is their model, they produce an offensive work, filled with spasmodic and ebullient outbursts of fifth-rate poetical nonsense, and garnished by personal adventures indelicately described. If the latter is their model, they read up a great many books connected with the subject, and quote them largely, specifying, with conscientious minuteness, the page and volume of their authorities. But to relieve the tedium of such heavy reading, some graceful observations on the dress and appearance of the female populations that they visit are thrown in, and the reader is prayed, with condescending frankness, to skip the heavy reading and turn to the lighter narrative.

If young ladies must write an account of their travels when they come home, the latter method is much the most sensible way to do it. After having published such a book, a young lady has made herself mistress of a great deal of useful information, and if she does not at once rise to the eminence of a Miss Martineau or a Mary Howitt, she has, at least, done something both for herself and for those who read her book. The writer of "Across the Carpathians" has adopted the second method of describing her expedition, and in so doing she has acquitted herself very creditably. If we were to mention the names alone of the various authors she has consulted, we should have no space for her own book. She might have annexed a list of them that would appal the author of the "History of Civilization in England," and effectually prevent him from making an ostentatious display of learning in his next volume similar to the exhibition that he made in his first. But when we mention that she draws on Mr. Paget for history and legends, and on Palacky, Sydow, and Krasinsky, for politics, few readers will think she has done badly. They will rather thank her for having compressed so much useful information into such serviceable shape.

The book itself gives a pleasant enough narrative of an expedition that the authoress made in company with her aunt from Presburg to Cracow, a distance by the route they took across the Carpathians of some two hundred and fifty miles. It is well printed; it is "beautifully bound in white cloth with red lines"—we quote the advertisement; it is embellished with a very nice map of Hungary; and it is a very portable little travelling companion for any one who may have any intention of undertaking a similar expedition. The object which the authoress had in publishing the book is stated with an almost embarrassing modesty:—

"One object, therefore, in writing the following narrative has been to bear witness, once for all, how easy we found the transit and how rich the reward of each effort in its accomplishment. Also, we cannot but be anxious to save other English people the only real trouble through which we had to wade—that, namely, of collecting, at second and third hand, uncertain testimonies about the 'lions in the path.' We have tried to recollect what were represented to us as the most formidable of these obstacles—bad roads, bad inns, the difficulty of obtaining horses and of communicating with the country people,—and we have dwelt, at a length which must otherwise seem unwarrantable, on every detail connected with such impediments."

Modest though this statement is, it is also sensible and unaffected. But it is only just to the writer to say, that it gives no adequate index to the reader of what he is to gain by the perusal of the book. The mere narrative is by no means particularly interesting. One tour is very much like another. The adventures that people meet with in their travels, whether in a Norwegian carriage, on a Syrian horse, or in a Slovak four-wheeled cart, are very similar. It depends entirely on an author's own resources whether an account of his adventures be readable or not. Some people can make so very much out of nothing, and others can make nothing out of very much. "To Newton and to Newton's dog Diamond what a different pair of universes!" Some writers would have written a great deal more about this Carpathian expedition. Dr. Corrigan, the distinguished author of "Ten Days in Athens," would have filled the whole three hundred pages of this little book with his journey from Dublin to Vienna, and devoted a chapter to the stuffings of an Austrian railway carriage. But Dr. Corrigan could not have written the chapter in this book headed "Panslavism;" he could not have drawn so pointedly and delicately the character of Jelacic; and he could not have produced such a true and condensed account of the miserable state of the Austrian dominions as is contained in the following quotation:—

"In the hereditary dukedom everybody murmurs, but it is about the taxes and the Concordat; the young Emperor is himself beloved, and the ancient line of Hapsburg venerated as that of rulers under whom the Austrian Margravate has become the mistress of a powerful empire. In Hungary everybody murmurs; but there, though the taxes and the Concordat are anathematized, their repeal is an object altogether subordinate to the great grievances of the nation—the abolition of the Hungarian Constitution and the attempt to amalgamate Hungary with Austria. Nevertheless, although determined to own no link with the rest of the empire, save in the person of the sovereign, Hungary still acknowledges that sovereign as the heir of him on whom she bestowed her crown. Lastly, in Poland every one murmurs; but the complaints against taxes and Concordat, the loss of a constitution, and of separate government—all are whispers, unheard in the outcry against foreign occupation—against German rule."

It is in these three points—her account of Panslavism, her character of Jelacic, and her appreciation of the state of Austria—that the writer of "Across the Carpathians" is most successful. Indeed, we were rather surprised to find anything so good in the book. The tour itself is dry. We

are therefore going to draw the attention of our readers to the political rather than the personal bearing of this book.

The authoress and her aunt, with whom she travelled, got into trouble with the Austrian officials. They were arrested at Leutschau by a blundering place-seeking underling, who was desirous of manifesting his devotion to the House of Hapsburg. He accused them of "Panslavistic tendencies," and generally made himself offensive to the two ladies, and contemptible in the eyes of everybody else. This unpleasant incident gives our authoress an opportunity of telling her readers what "Panslavistic tendencies" may be. Panslavism is the name used to express the idea of a Slavonic nation in which all members of the Slav-speaking family are to be united in one body. The question arises as to what sections constitute the Slavonic race. They are divided into two classes of nationalities: those united under the general appellation of Russians, and those under Austrian or Turkish dominion. Of this second class, some, such as the Bohemians, Croats, &c., retain their individuality as Slavonic nationalities, though they owe allegiance to a foreign sovereign; others, such as the Slovaks in North Hungary, and the South Slavonic nations—Bosnia, Bulgaria, &c.—have not retained their individual nationalities, but have become incorporated with the dominant power. These various members of the Slav-speaking family consist of eighty-seven millions of people, among whom most religious denominations are represented. There are Mahomedans as well as Christians, and among the Christians such antagonistic professions as Protestants, Romanists, and members of the Greek Church. At first sight, a combination of such diverse interests seems an impossibility. Yet it is not so. Only fourteen years ago, in the war between Austria and Hungary, the greater part of these eighty-seven millions were arrayed against five millions of Magyars. "Bohemians, Croats, Serbs, and Slovaks, all fought on the same side: and when they were not enough, Russia took the field."

Panslavism is no abstraction. It has a real meaning. The principal characteristics of the Slavonic nations are in a great measure identical. Their language differs but it is only a difference of dialect. A Montenegrin would not experience more difficulty in understanding a Siberian than an ancient Ionian from the colonies of Asia Minor would have experienced in understanding a Dorian from Sparta. Or, to take a more modern illustration, the difference between the language of Poland and that of Bosnia is not greater than the difference between the Gaelic of the north of Scotland and that of Ireland. In these Eastern countries Panslavism is a favourite political doctrine. It may in time become a political reality. Its bearings are twofold: 1, as against the German element as represented by Austria; and, 2, as against the Oriental element represented by Turkey. The Chichians, comprising the Bohemians, Moravians, and Slovaks, and the Poles of Galicia, oppose the Germans. The Illyrians, comprising the inhabitants of Herzegovina and Montenegro, and the Bosnians and Bulgarians, oppose the Turks. These two Slavonic elements are drawing closely together as they see the weakness of their respective opponents in Austria and Turkey; but the closer they draw together the complications that arise become intensified. Among the Panslavists themselves there are two parties. The representatives of the first look to Russia as their head: their political prayer commences with these words: "Our Father who art in the North;" and their main desire is to absorb the different Slavonic nationalities in one all-powerful Russia. The representatives of the second decry the idea of Russian aggrandisement, but uphold Slavonic aggrandisement. Their desire is to elevate the Slavonic race as a whole, and to raise the different nationalities into free and independent states like Montenegro, distinct and isolated as communities, but one and indivisible as members of a family. "To preach Panslavism, then," as the authoress says, "is simply to remind those eighty-seven millions of Slavonic people that they are 'Srb,' and that they should unite their forces for the aggrandisement of the family." And this is the crime that an over-zealous Austrian official accused two English ladies of perpetrating. It is unnecessary to say that our authoress was guiltless of any such folly while she was in Austria, though she does show a leaning towards such tendencies in what she has published now that she is in England.

We must now turn to her delineation of the character of Jelacic. It is contained in the chapter headed "Gravamina," and it is beyond all question the most interesting part of the book. In this chapter we have set forth the grievances urged by the Slovaks against the perfidious house of Hapsburg. Of late we have heard only of the dishonest policy of that house in its dealings with the Magyars. That is bad enough. But when the loyal conduct of Jelacic is put side by side with the depravity of the Austrian Government towards him in the war of 1848, as it is in this book, the Magyar grievances fall into the shade. Writers on this subject generally speaking have not dwelt upon the character of the Ban of Croatia. They have contented themselves with mentioning him by name as the leader of the Croats who was duped by Austria and who commenced the war against Hungary. Our sympathies have been excited for the Hungarians, and very justly. But we have left ourselves no sympathy for others. The authoress of this book looks at the question from a different point of view. She has no Hungarian prejudices—quite the reverse. She dislikes the Magyars as much as Mr. Paton dislikes them. But her eyes are not blind to the delinquencies of Austria. She has not, perhaps, lived so much with the Viennese aristocracy as the author of "Researches on the Danube and the Adriatic," or if she has she retains sufficient independence to form her own views without slavishly looking through official spectacles. She takes the Slavonic side of this question. She shows what a noble and magnanimous character the leader of the Croats was, and she proves only too clearly how infamously he was betrayed by the Archduchess Sophia and the counsellors of the present Emperor; how his heart was broken by their conduct and his country's wrongs; and how, finally, he died—by poison or not by poison it seems impossible to say.

We quote two passages of this chapter. They are interesting in themselves, and they are good specimens of the best writing in the book:—

"His appearance has been frequently described to us. 'He was of the middle height, broad shouldered, and powerful, with a grandly-developed forehead, and an eye of fire. He had a dignity which rendered it impossible for any one to forget the respect due to him; but it is not too much to say,' added an officer whose regiment had served under him, 'that his Croats would have gone through fire and water for him—indeed so would we all.'"

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And again:—

"The Ban summoned us all to meet him on a certain day in Vienna, and when we were assembled, he told us that we were come to witness his final step. 'To-morrow,' said he, 'I mean to request an audience, and once more, once for all, to put the question, Will the Government, or will it not, ratify the promises which by its authority I have made to the Croats? Should the answer be in the negative, next day I quit Vienna.' The interview took place, and Jelacic saw his friends afterwards. He seemed quite struck down, and said, 'All is now over. God help the people; henceforth I can do no more.' The Government had refused to fulfil the engagements on the faith of which he had raised the Croats. He found himself placed before his nation in the light of a deceiver. It broke his heart."

"He totally withdrew himself from Vienna; for some time he even demurred about continuing to hold the office of Ban; but it was suggested to him that should he lay it down it would be immediately filled by some creature of Austria's, and so he made up his mind to stick to his post until the end. The end was darkness. His continuance in office was taken as the pretext for many a bitter gibe; doubt was even thrown on his patriotism; and yet 'surely nations was never so loved as was the nation of Croats by their Ban.' His grief for the death of an only child, the agony of a lingering disease, all added shadow to the cloud that at last sunk down over his stricken spirit, and under the cloud he died. We heard from a lady, who was in Agram at the time of his death, that his Croats wept for him as if for a father, and publicly thanked his wife for the devoted tenderness with which she had soothed his sick bed. But the simple people never would believe that their chief came fairly by his end. Again and again we were met by the story; and when we have asked the relator, 'Do you believe it?—Do you believe it possible that Jelacic was poisoned by order of the Austrian Government?'—the answer is invariably the same, 'It matters very little what I believe; do the Croats believe it?—Yes.'"

If we mistake not, "Across the Carpathians" is not all for which we are indebted to this authoress. We judge entirely by internal evidence; but we are strongly of opinion that the article on Montenegro in the new number of the "Vacation Tourists," is by the same pen. If we are right in this conjecture, we must take this opportunity of conveying our thanks to "I. M." for that happy addition to the book we have just reviewed. Both in point of interest and in point of style it is a decided improvement on "Across the Carpathians." Perhaps it is not too much to say that it is the most interesting article in that very successful volume which has just been published by Macmillan.

MUSIC.

SACRED HARMONIC SOCIETY.—CRYSTAL PALACE CONCERTS.—ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA.—PHILHARMONIC SOCIETY.—MUSICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.—CHAMBER-MUSIC CONCERTS.

We wonder whether the illustrious Parisian critics—those lions of the French press—who, it would seem, are sent over for the sole purpose of showing off their ignorance, are as well-versed in musical as in other artistic matters? We wonder whether they have ever heard of a Sacred Harmonic Society, *dans le Strand*? If so, we should like to know what the Texiers and the Assolants have to say on a performance like that of "Elijah" at Exeter Hall. Not that we care much for their opinion, but it would be interesting, we imagine, to know their remarks upon Mendelssohn's oratorio, the "Société Harmonique" in particular, and "Musique Sacrée" in general. We should probably be told that they manage these things better in France; that Mendelssohn is better understood in Paris than in London; that his music may be *très savante*, but is *fort ennuyeuse*; that "Elijah" was originally composed, not for Birmingham, but for Lille; that it is impossible that a nation of shopkeepers should sing as well as a nation of *petits maîtres*, and that the whole affair is a sham. With their deep knowledge of English customs and manners, their intimate acquaintance with the English tongue, their sympathy for English institutions, and their love of truth, we might hear from them many things we never dreamt of, and learn how to treat others, and how to conduct ourselves. However interesting all this might prove, our readers, we fear, would hardly be satisfied with a French account of an English concert, for which reason we take leave, for the present, of our gallant French critics.

Without entering into a minute analysis of Mendelssohn's sacred master-piece, or attempting to point out its transcendent beauties—a task as ambitious as it is superfluous,—we may at once state that the performance on Friday week last was one of the best we have ever witnessed at the Sacred Harmonic Society. There can be no doubt that the constant practising together under the same conductor, and the preparatory rehearsals for the approaching Handel Festival, have been instrumental in perfecting still further the already excellent performance of the vast body of singers attached to the society, and though Handel's music is to constitute exclusively the programme of the great meeting at the Crystal Palace, next June, yet the works of Mendelssohn are so frequently performed and so greatly admired, that equal attention is paid to them, and the same labour and love bestowed upon his music as upon that of his great predecessor. One of the great features the Sacred Harmonic Society prides itself on, is that the orchestra and chorus consist of *seven hundred* performers, but we cannot help thinking that the forces might be more equally balanced. It appeared to us that the instruments were greatly overpowered by the voices,—the former, in some portions of the oratorio, as, for instance, in the chorus, "And then we shall see whose God is God the Lord," and "Baal, we cry to thee,"—being almost inaudible. This defect is still further increased by the loudness of the organ, which, in our opinion, considerably mars the effect of the music. Moderation in the organ accompaniments is extremely advisable. If it were possible, also, to obtain a still greater regard to light and shade, which adds so materially to the beauty of the music, and to get rid of the exaggerated *sforzandi*, the execution of these oratorios might fairly be pronounced perfect. Some of the choruses, especially "Thank be to God," with which the first part terminates, and the chorus following the air "Hear ye, Israel," were sung with extraordinary vigour, precision, and smoothness, every word of the text being audible, which, with so large a body of choristers, cannot be too highly commended. We wish, indeed,

the same could be said of *all* the principal singers, but, with all respect for their admirable talent, we cannot refrain from observing that such is not the case.

Mr. Sims Reeves, for example, than whom no one enters more fully into the spirit of the music he has to sing, sins greatly in this respect. Without book in hand, it is impossible to make out what he says. Here and there particular emphasis is given to a single word or phrase, but his enunciation, on the whole, is seldom distinct. This is chiefly owing, we think, to a certain mannerism of delivery, not unfrequently resulting in affectation, which has of late marked his rendering of sacred music. However effective the sudden changes from "pianissimo" to "fortissimo" may be in a popular song of a secular character, it is hardly so in sacred music, where simplicity and dignity of style are of the first importance. Mr. Sims Reeves seems, as it were, to reserve himself for certain "points," which are, no doubt, very telling, and produce a corresponding effect; but the impression would be still greater if the famous tenor would show himself equally solicitous with regard to *all* the music, and give as strong a relief to the "recitative" as to the "cantabile." "What is excusable in a prince is not so in a king," says a great author; in like manner, we think, that what may be overlooked in other tenors, ought not to pass unnoticed in an artist like Mr. Sims Reeves. The part of Elijah was to have been sung by Herr Formes, but being indisposed, his place was taken by Mr. Santley, who was, in every respect, a worthy substitute of the German basso. Finer singing, more admirable declamation, it would be difficult to hear. His reading of the music, moreover, was instinct with dramatic energy and great warmth of expression, while the beauty of his voice added materially to the generally effect. Equally deserving of praise was the performance of Mdlle. Parepa, who, in all she undertakes, invariably shows the clever artist and the sound musician. All that is wanted to render her one of the first singers of sacred music, is a little more nobility and loftiness of style, such as we admire in the singing of Madame Sainton-Dolby, who, in the lovely air, "Oh, rest in the Lord," again proved that sacred music, to create the desired impression, ought to be no less deeply felt than profoundly studied. Madame Sainton divided the contr'alto part with Madame Laura Baxter, who to a good voice adds much taste and judgment. The performance, as we have said, was altogether one of more than usual excellence.

The prolonged presence in London of M. Meyerbeer is a subject for warm congratulation, and lends renewed interest to some of our great musical entertainments. Among these may be counted the Saturday concerts at the Crystal Palace, Sydenham, inasmuch as the performances are equal to those of our best musical societies. Indeed, considering the small number of executants compared with that of the usual orchestral bodies, we are inclined to think that, in some respects, they are superior, especially in precision and refinement, although individually the performers may not possess such distinguished merit. No greater proof of the excellence of the Crystal Palace band could be found than in the performance of Beethoven's symphony in C minor, and the splendid execution of Meyerbeer's grand Coronation March, composed expressly for the coronation of the King of Prussia at Königsberg. This march, though not on so extensive a scale and so broad a plan as the Overture March written for the inauguration of the International Exhibition, is yet equally grand and imposing, and to our mind even superior to his march in "Le Prophète." It possesses the same gorgeous, triumphal colouring, and is replete with those masterly instrumental effects, those extraordinary combinations of genius, art, and science that distinguish all Meyerbeer's creations. The Coronation March is written for full orchestra, with the addition of military bands, quite distinct from each other, and yet forming one complete body. A great feature in the treatment of these separate orchestras is the contrast of themes, and the manner in which the two bands alternate, and are made to answer each other. After a brilliant *fanfare*, the composer at once introduces the leading subject, resembling somewhat the grand opening of the march in "Le Prophète." This is followed by a beautiful cantabile for the stringed instruments, one of those impassioned melodies which strike the listener at a first hearing. The second trio, a theme as gay as it is elegant, offering a charming relief to the preceding subjects, leads us back to the original idea, while, towards the end, the composer, in a burst of loyal enthusiasm, breaks into the national air,

"Ich bin ein Preusse;
Kennst du meine Farben."

We then arrive at the coda, in which all the bands unite in the production of a powerful climax, overwhelming in its grandeur and effect, and bringing the whole to a triumphant conclusion.

It is of course impossible, in a few words, to do justice to so admirable a composition, but enough has been said to show that the Coronation March may rank with the best "*pièces de circonstance*" we possess of the celebrated composer's prolific pen. It was produced under the personal superintendence of M. Meyerbeer, which may account for the perfect execution of the work, under the direction of Herr Manns. It is needless to add that the March met with a most enthusiastic reception, and was repeated, after the composer had been led forward by the conductor to receive the congratulations of the delighted audience.

So much remains to be said on the other musical doings of the week, that we must necessarily be brief in our account of the performance of "Rigoletto" at the Royal Italian Opera. The cast was the same as that of last year, with the exception of Signor delle Sedie, who once more took the part of Ronconi, the latter, we regret to state, being still detained in Spain by severe illness. Signor delle Sedie has the advantage over his predecessor that he sings in tune, but he labours under the disadvantage of being deficient in creative power, and falls short of his gifted countryman in one thing, viz., genius. However skilful the artist may be, however deserving his performance, nothing can replace the light of genius. "Rigoletto" in the hands of Signor delle Sedie was a very respectable performance, while in the hands of Ronconi it became a masterly creation: hence the apathy with which the opera was received on Saturday last. Madame

Miolan-Carvalho, as Gilda, does not fully realize the poetic intentions of the composer, but her performance, on the whole, was worthy of commendation.

The last concert of the Philharmonic Society, although excellent in its kind, was one of those stereotyped performances on which a great deal might, and very little need be, said. As usual the first part commenced with a fine symphony (Mozart's, in E flat), very well executed, and terminated with an overture (Isles of Fingal), in which the band was more vigorous than smooth. The same doubtful compliment might apply to the execution of Beethoven's Pastoral Symphony, where the horns made themselves unpleasantly conspicuous, though not to so great an extent as in the scena from "Fidelio," "A qual furor," sung by Miss Louisa Pyne. This very ambitious and elaborate air does not suit the style or voice of the talented singer, and failed in creating any impression whatever. The only feature of the concert was the first appearance in England of Herr Davidoff, violoncellist of the Conservatoire at Leipzig. This gentleman enjoys a great reputation in Germany, and, judging from his performance on Monday last, fully deserves his reputation. Of his Concerto in B minor, a clever composition, but possessing small power of invention and no originality, little remains to be said, but the highest praise is due to him for his talent as an executant. His playing is remarkable for perfect intonation, wonderful facility of execution, and great ease and freedom of bowing. He phrases, moreover, with taste and skill, although a still greater variety of expression would be desirable. It is evident that Herr Davidoff is a first-rate artist, and may rank with the best violoncellists of the present day. His success was complete.

Far greater interest was attached to the concert of the Musical Society of London; but we have already so much exhausted the attention of our readers, that we are loth to pass in review the programme of the last meeting. Three things, however, deserve a passing notice, on account of their excellence and novelty. The first is the performance of Meyerbeer's "Marche-Ouverture," composed for the International Exhibition; the second, a selection of Mr. Arthur Sullivan's "Tempest" music, as performed at the Crystal Palace, consisting of the overture to the fourth act, the dance of the reapers, and the duet for soprano voices, sung by Mdlle. Parepa and Miss Robertine Henderson; and the third, an air by Hummel, from one of his operas, "Mathilde de Guise," given with exquisite feeling by Mr. Santley, and most cleverly scored by Mr. Alfred Mellon. The appearance of the Brothers Holmes, two clever and painstaking young violinists, who, on their various travels, have met with some success, lent additional interest to the concert. In a concertante duet, in "Bollinor," by Spohr, with accompaniment of orchestra, composed as far back as the year 1833, the youthful players displayed some of the qualities of accomplished *virtuosi*. Their tone is small, but bright; their expression in cantabile phrases, though always exaggerated, is not disagreeable, while their execution, often strained, is sometimes brilliant. Our accomplished countrymen would still enhance the effect of their performance by endeavouring to impart to their spirited rendering of Spohr's delicious music a little of that repose and sadness which are essential to the pathetic strains of that great composer.

We extremely regret that want of space precludes the possibility of doing more than briefly allude to the two most important chamber concerts of the week. Mr. Harold Thomas, one of our most rising pianists, and a composer of more than ordinary merit, gave a very interesting concert at Willis's Rooms, assisted by Professor Sterndale Bennett, Herr Joachim, Signor Piatti, and some of our leading vocalists. The two great features of the entertainment consisted in the performance of a trio by Professor Bennett, for pianoforte, violin, and violoncello—the pianoforte by Mr. Harold Thomas; and a duet for piano and violin, by Sebastian Bach, played by the distinguished Professor and the accomplished Joachim. It is no small honour for Mr. Thomas to have enjoyed the co-operation of England's greatest musician, especially if it is remembered that Professor Bennett has not played in public for years. Nothing could more strongly mark the place which Mr. Harold Thomas holds in the estimation of his brother artists.

The other *matinée* was given by Miss Macirone, at the Queen's Concert Rooms in Hanover-square. This lady is well known as a most talented composer and pianiste, and fully maintained her reputation, in both capacities, by her clever performance of Mrs. Thompson's (Kate Loder) beautiful trio, of which we have spoken in the highest terms on its first performance, at the trial of new chamber compositions at the Musical Society of London, and also by several compositions at her own. In the trio Miss Macirone enjoyed the valuable aid of M. Sainton and Piatti, while Madame Sainton-Dolby and Mr. Santley did full justice to the songs of the clever *bénéficiaire*.

CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

PLATINUM MANUFACTURES AT THE EXHIBITION.

ONE of the grandest metallurgical feats ever accomplished has just been achieved by Messrs. Johnson, Matthey, & Co., the well-known precious metal refiners, of Hatton-garden. Few of our readers can have forgotten Professor Faraday's clear and eloquent description of H. Ste. Claire Deville's process for refining and melting platinum and other refractory metals in large quantities, which was brought under the notice of the public at the Royal Institution, about fifteen months ago, and was reported in our pages at that time. The process, which it will be remembered, was based upon the employment of a gigantic oxyhydrogen blowpipe playing upon the metal in a nearly closed chamber cut out of lime, was immediately adopted by the firm above mentioned, who have since used it largely for refining platinum for commercial purposes. Taking advantage of the presence of M. Ste. Claire Deville, and other eminent scientific men in England, they last week invited a party of English and Continental savans to witness the melting and casting of a mass of pure platinum, weighing no less than 3,200 oz.—upwards of 2 cwt. This mighty ingot of precious metal, by far the largest mass ever before obtained in a single

lump, and worth £3,840, has within the last day or two been deposited by Messrs. Johnson & Matthey in the International Exhibition, where it forms one of the most striking objects in the metallurgical department. The mould into which it was run was very roughly built up of refractory limestone, and the extreme fluidity of the liquid metal is well illustrated by the irregularities in the sides of the ingot, it having entered the minutest crevices between the lumps of stone, as if it had been so much water. The lump is exhibited in exactly the state in which it came from the mould, and the sharpness of the impression and the minute details which the melted metal has retained on solidifying, show that platinum, when once obtained in a fluid state, is as eminently adapted for fine castings as any of the commoner metals. By the side of this ingot, and rivaling it in scientific interest if not in magnitude, is a lump of pure iridium, weighing 27½ ounces, also fused by Deville's process. This is a metal allied to platinum, but very much rarer and less fusible. Here may also be seen specimens of rhodium, ruthenium, osmium, and palladium, all of which have been fused in the same manner. One of the most curious specimens in the case is some silicium, the metallic basis of rock crystal, a substance whose physical properties are almost entirely unknown, but which may here be seen in fused pieces as large as walnuts; its near chemical relative, boron, is also present in a beautifully crystallized form, but we did not observe any of the remarkable boron and silicium diamonds which have recently been prepared artificially. Some fine specimens of the melted alloy of iridium and osmium, almost approaching the diamond in hardness, are also exhibited; this is employed for making the nibs of gold pens, a very small glass cupful is worth 120 guineas. A magnificent specimen of granulated gold, about six inches high, in the form of an arborescent pyramid, attracts general attention. We never saw the brilliant yellow colour of the pure metal so well displayed as in this instance. It is accompanied by several other forms of metallic gold in scales, and in the form of a yellow and brown powder. This firm has also a splendid show of manufactured platinum. Under the table, and almost out of sight is a large platinum alembic, about two feet in height by eighteen inches in diameter: this is a beautiful specimen of workmanship and deserves a more prominent place than the one it at present occupies. The largest manufactured article in the precious metal is an improved platinum boiler, intended chiefly for rectifying sulphuric acid, but capable of adaptation to other purposes: it is soldered with gold and is furnished with a pyrometer; its value without this addition is £465. This vessel has been in use for rectifying sulphuric acid, and starting from a dark, dirty oil of vitriol of 147° of strength (which is 7° less than the strength to which it may fairly be brought before it is run into the rectifying vessel), it has produced three tons of clear sulphuric acid of full strength in twenty-four hours. We understand that the weight of metal in this retort per ton of acid daily produced is only from one-fourth to one-eighth of that of vessels ordinarily used for this purpose. This is accompanied by several beautiful specimens of workmanship in the new alloy of platinum and iridium, containing twenty per cent. of iridium, in the form of large crucibles with capsule covers and evaporating dishes of 8, 10, and 12 inches diameter. Whatever may be the advantages of employing vessels of this alloy for laboratory purposes, owing to its great power of resisting energetic chemical agents, we fear that it will not be generally liked by scientific men, as it varies in weight and becomes disintegrated by long-continued exposure to a gas flame. We also noticed a platinum tap and some beautifully made tubing of melted platinum soldered together with the same metal varying from 1 inch in diameter to 1-8th of an inch, with a bore of 1-30th, the larger tubing being lighter than those made in the ordinary way, and yet capable of standing a pressure of sixty pounds to the inch. The case likewise contains various other articles of great scientific interest, such as beautifully turned platinum balls 2 inches in diameter for magnetic experiments, cones 3 inches in height for the tops of lightning conductors, together with wire, foil, gauze, &c., of all sizes, which do not require further detail.

We have devoted more space than we intended to a notice of these articles, but our scientific readers will be satisfied, upon an inspection of these magnificent examples of platinum metallurgy, that we have not in the slightest degree overrated their scientific or commercial importance.

CORRESPONDENCE.

COLOUR BY ABSORPTION.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—The account of the production of colour by absorption propounded in your interesting review of Professor Kirchhoff's memoir "On the Solar Spectrum and the Spectra of Chemical Elements," translated from the German by Professor Roscoe, receives an interesting illustration in the case of ordinary vitriol or sulphate of copper. That salt, or its solution, absorbs strongly the rays of the solar spectrum, so as to appear in ordinary daylight of a deep blue, somewhat inclining to green. In the rays of subdued twilight, however, it appears of a very pale tint, or sometimes quite colourless, so that the crystals scarcely be recognized as the same on the approach of a candle. I am not aware that this peculiarity has received attention, and as it appears to indicate that diffused light of the blue sky is wanting in those very colours of the spectrum which sulphate of copper most effectually absorbs, it appears worthy of notice as a coincidence.

I am, Sir, yours obediently,

ALEX. S. HENNING.

TRANSIT OF THE SHADOW OF TITAN.

SIR,—Permit me to state that on the evening of Saturday last, 17th inst., was so fortunate as to obtain a sight of the shadow of Titan in transit across the globe of Saturn, with my seven-foot achromatic of 5½ inches aperture, by Mr. Clark, and powers of 170, 220, 275, and 460.

In consequence of absence from home and other circumstances, I had the pleasure of Mr. Dawes's valuable announcement in your columns that a transit would place on that evening, and examined the planet merely with a view of ascertaining

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ing whether any trace could be detected of the ansæ. I could perceive nothing of the kind, but was at once struck with an irregularity in the aspect of the dark stripe, about one-fifth of the diameter of the ball from its east limb, and was equally surprised and gratified to recognize in it the shadow of the large satellite, which had passed beyond the planet, and was then not far from the opposite limb, but nearly on a level with the North pole. At first I imagined that it projected on each side of the dark stripe, like a knot in a piece of black thread, but a little reflection convinced me that this must be an illusion, as it would give a very exaggerated diameter to the shadow, and I afterwards satisfied myself, as well as the defining power of my glass, and the state of the air—which, though good, was not first-rate,—would permit, that it broke the dark line on the north side only. It continued steadily visible till it had advanced about one-third of the way across the ball, when the observation was discontinued. I was able at times to see it distinctly with as low a power as 110, and have no doubt that, as Mr. Dawes has suggested, a much smaller aperture would have been sufficient to show it, so that it may be hoped that many of your readers may have witnessed this very interesting phenomenon.

I remain, Sir, yours obediently,

T. W. WEBB.

May 23, 1862.

[An excellent notice of the passage of Titan's shadow has been received from the Rev. W. R. Dawes, Hopefield House Observatory, too late for insertion in this number.—ED. L. R.]

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

STEEL SHOT.—The Americans have been making steel shot with apparently the most successful results. Indeed, theoretically, the greater density and hardness of steel ought to give it a highly superior penetrating power over iron plates, and it would almost seem that in this adaptation they have taken a step in advance of our English experiments. At the proving ground on the Alleghany a number of elongated steel 24-pound shots have been tried against heavy iron plates. The steel balls penetrated the massive target, tearing and shattering the plates at every discharge, whilst the cast-iron balls broke in fragments on striking, and scarcely made an indentation. The steel balls were scarcely injured by the concussion, the points of them only giving way. From these experiments, if the effects are correctly stated, it would seem probable that no iron armour plating would resist steel shot fired from large and appropriate ordnance.

DOUBLE REFLECTING HEARING TRUMPETS.—This excellent invention emanates from Mr. John Marshall, the surgeon to the University College Hospital, and the instruments are manufactured by Messrs. Elliott of the Strand. The principle is that of double reflection, and they accomplish for sound what the Cassegrainian telescope does for light. The atmospheric sound-waves pass directly into the mouth of an ellipsoidal or paraboloidal reflector, and are reflected from its inner surface towards a common focus, and thus are powerfully concentrated. Then, instead of being allowed to reach that focus, and to intersect and interfere with each other there, and again in their further course to the ear, so as to occasion confusion of sound, the concentrated sonorous undulations, are received upon the outer surface of an internal reflector capable of accommodating the instrument to slight variations of distance: from this they are reflected a second time down the tube which conducts them to the ear. The concentrated sound is finally transmitted smoothly into the ear from the surface of a plane mirror adjusted at a proper angle between the conducting tube and the ear-piece. The utmost economy of action is thus secured, for every sonorous wave entering the mouth of these instruments is utilized; but the important advantage is the ease and distinctness with which these trumpets convey sounds. In them the roaring noises produced in the ordinary ear-trumpets by the lateral reverberations of the sound waves are reduced to a minimum.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS.

Royal Institution, May 16.—"On the Iron Walls of Old England," by Mr. Scott Russell. It was not the first time the lecturer had been allowed the honour of expounding such truths as had been the object of his special study, but he had never treated on one of so great national importance. He was somewhat rash, perhaps, in accepting from the managers the title of his address,—rash because the subject was then in a state of transition. It was even worse now, for it had come to what geologists had called a "slip;" he might almost say he found himself at "fault." What he had to say now was as different as possible from what he should have said when he made the promise. Six or eight months ago he should have met here a formidable phalanx of adversaries—amongst them nearly all the naval officers—arrayed against him as the advocate of iron ships of war, and he should have had to argue every point as he proceeded. But unfortunately now we were all on one side; the pugilistic encounter which might then have entertained his audience could not come off. Twelve months ago he had written a pamphlet showing that the end of wooden men-of-war was at hand, and that it was a sin and a shame to send our sailors to sea in them; but the authorities of that day brought their guns to bear upon him and completely demolished him. Since then, however, he had got up again; and his heterodoxy had become orthodoxy, and he thought there would be no opponent of "iron walls" for the future. About the beginning of the year we were on the eve of war with a people who, whatever their faults, have never hesitated to adopt for war the fittest weapons,—who, long before rifles were introduced into our army, were celebrated for their use of them and for their manufacture,—to whom we are indebted for the revolvers we found so useful in India, and which, whether they invented them or not, they brought to perfection. That people excelled also in ships, for while the English people, priding themselves on the beautiful "wave lines" on which their fast steamers were built, were slow to perceive the advantage of the same lines for sailing ships, the Americans adopted them for their sailing vessels, and came over and beat our fleetest yachts in our own waters. It was the Americans, too, who first built ships of large size, and carried off our best freights in their large wave-line clippers. When going to war with such a powerful nation it became necessary to take stock of our fighting material. The Government did take stock too of your fleet, and the extent of your navy, fit for a naval battle, at the beginning of the present year—as announced in a powerful leader in the *Times*—was one ship of the line. At the present moment we have two ships of the line fit for service, the *Warrior* and the *Black Prince*, and no more. This serious point is no longer a matter of speculation. It is now universally accepted as a fact, and accepted as a very small naval engagement in American waters, the contest of the *Merrimac* and *Monitor*, that an iron vessel of war is better than a wooden one; while the battle of the *Merrimac* with the *Congress* and *Cumberland* has settled the point in dispute eight or nine months ago, viz., that a wooden vessel could

sustain the attack of a ship of war in iron armour. Sir John Hay, the chairman of the naval commission, is quoted in an excellent article in the *Quarterly Review*, as using this expression,—"The man who goes to action in a wooden vessel is a fool, and the man who sends him there is a villain."

Let us now inquire how this revolution has come about. How is it that our brave sailors ought no longer to face our enemies from behind our wooden walls? This revolution has been chiefly brought about by the introduction in artillery of horizontal shell-firing. A certain General Paixhan, a Frenchman, contributed more than any one else to this result. He made cannon of 8 to 10 inches bore, by which explosive shells—which previously had been fired up in the air and had to come down again upon their object—could then be fired straight at the mark, especially at a wooden ship, which was as good a target as an enemy could possibly desire. This horizontal firing was for a long time a favourite idea with artillerymen, but they had very little opportunity of trying it in practical war. Sir Howard Douglas, speaking of its effects says, "a shell exploding between decks acts in every direction; under the deck it would blow up all above it; on deck it would make a prodigious breach below it, at the same time that it would act laterally." The shell which accidentally exploded in the *Medea*, on the lower deck, killed the bombardier and several of the crew, knocked down all the bulkheads, and threw the whole squadron into consternation; and the like effect was to be expected from an enemy's shell lodged before its explosion had taken place. The first experiment on a large scale in actual war was at the commencement of the Russian war. The Russian fleet, sneaking about the Black Sea, put into Sinope, and in a very short space of that morning sank and burnt the Turkish squadron. This battle was the entire effect of horizontal shell-firing. The true nature of this horizontal fire has had another illustration. You were all astonished, and wanted to know why Sir Charles Napier did not take Cronstadt, and that our other fleet did not take Sebastopol. It was well known to professional men then why we did not, and there is now no reason why the secret should be kept. Our enemies know it, so why not our friends? Our sailors were not fools enough to stand to their guns in wooden ships exposed to horizontal shell-firing. The lecturer had read a letter from Lord Dundonald, one of the bravest sailors that ever trod the deck, written by him to Napier off Cronstadt, in which he expresses the greatest apprehension that Sir Charles would be goaded on to try the attack with what he called combustible ships. We tried Sebastopol—or rather we tried to "make-believe." We drew up our fleet a great way off, and one or two brave sailors did go in closer. But the Russian gunners were trained to horizontal shell-firing, and they soon found out it was best to be farther off. The admiral was to be considered the wisest man on board the fleet, for he anchored his ship the farthest off. Those ships that ventured in were rendered by three shells incapable of continuing the action, and it is not now considered a disgrace to those sailors to say that after three shells had exploded in one ship it was not possible to find men "fools" enough to stand to the guns. "Now, you know why we did not take Cronstadt, and why you did not know it sooner, was because the Government did not wish you should fail to believe in the wooden walls. At last, however, the *Monitor* and *Merrimac* have let out the secret, and I am here to tell you the whole truth." It need not be said that those shells at Sinope and Sebastopol were not the perfect weapons we have now,—the Armstrong shells are much more precise, and will scatter greater destruction around them. "Now much more I may not tell."

Attention has, therefore, since 1854 till now, been strongly directed to inventions for protecting ships from the effects of shells—and shot also, but chiefly shells. Men will stand against shot, but not against shells; they will run the risk of being hit, but will not face the certainty of being blown up. The invention of iron armour took place fifty or sixty years ago. He was not prepared to name the first inventor, but long before we thought of using it in our navy, Mr. R. L. Stevens, a celebrated engineer, of New York, the builder of some of the fastest steam-vessels on the Hudson, was, he thought, the inventor. Certainly Mr. Stevens, between 1845 and 1850, gave him a full account of experiments made in America, partly at his own and partly at the States' expense, and found that 6 inches thickness of iron-plate armour was sufficient to resist every shot and shell of that day. In 1845, he (Mr. Stevens) proposed to the American Government to construct an iron-plated ship, and in 1854 the ship was begun. This ship is in progress, but not yet finished. Mr. Stevens is therefore the inventor of iron armour, but no doubt the first man who practically applied it for warfare was the Emperor of the French. In 1854 he engaged in the Russian war, and being a great artilleryman, he felt deeply what his fleet could not do in the Black Sea, and we could not do in the Baltic, and so he put his wise head to work to find out what could be done. In 1854, the Emperor built some floating batteries—four or five; we simply took his design, and made five or six.

He had called the introduction of iron armour ships, Stevens's and the Emperor's; but something he laid claim to for ourselves. Stevens used thin flat plates one over the other; but Mr. Lloyd, of the Admiralty, being consulted at that time, did express his opinion that solid 4½-inch plates would be more effectual than the 6 inches of thickness in a congeries of plates. Mr. Lloyd has some of the merit as well as the Emperor for the adoption of this kind of armour. The lecturer exhibited a model of the first iron batteries. The form, he said, was not very handsome; in short, they were not only not good sea-boats, but in a sea good for nothing. They did, however, in smooth water, some good work; at least three of the French Emperor's did. We never got so far. They went to the Black Sea—to Kinburn; and when they came back they were covered with the marks of shot, but not one of them was seriously damaged. This proved the value of these coated vessels, and so convinced the Emperor that he wisely determined the fleet of France should in future be an iron fleet. We all know with what decision, what success, what economy he has carried that idea out. "I have here," said the lecturer, "the means of showing you what this armour is. Now to tell the secret of the efficacy of an armour plate. First, as a matter of fact, it stops the shot, as an anvil stops a hammer; and stops it outside the ship, and so, therefore, the armour acts practically as an anvil. When these plates were made they were made to resist 68-pounders, and 4½ inches thickness was ample; but now they were firing shot very much larger. When a round ball, or a round shell, strikes the iron plate, the first thing done is, that it stops the bit of the ball that first touches the armour; next, the bits round it rush on until they too get stopped by the armour; and so this little (!) ball makes a dent for itself; the remainder of the crushed ball seems, as Mr. Faraday says, to be 'squarred' out of shape. I stole the word, it is so capitally expressive. The shape is not like the original ball,—it is an entirely new form altogether. I call it 'Faraday's squerm.' But we have not the full weight of metal here. We have only a part of the shot left, the remainder is dispersed in numerous fragments. This is all that remains—a beautiful smooth, polished cone; the rest has gone everywhere. What meanwhile has happened to the armour? The plate first gets a dent; if Sir William Armstrong hits it twice in the same place the dent gets deeper; and if he hits it again in the same hollow, as he so maliciously does, the dent parts company

with the plate and starts on a voyage of exploration for itself. But if this ball (150-pounder) were used, I am sure that at the first hit it would take a piece of its own size away with it. Now if this occurs with a solid shot, what would happen with a hollow ball made to explode, and fired at the ship? Fortunately we know what would happen. We have seen it fired, and it not only got smashed to pieces, but it *forgot to explode*; and the only excuse that can be made for this is that it had not time to do so. I do not know if you know what takes place inside of a gun, but artillerymen know it takes some 4 or 5-1000ths of a second for the explosion to go from one end of the charge to the other. Explosion in a shell also takes time, and what happens with the shell striking the armour is that it gets shattered to pieces and the powder scattered about *before* it has time to explode; and this not only with four-inch iron, but with plates a great deal thinner." This power of annihilating shell is one of the advantages which iron bestows on a ship, and for which wood is powerless; and upon this very fortunate fact the new principle of naval construction is based, for whatever armour will do against shot, it will infallibly keep out the shell. What kind of armour is best against shell and what against shot is still a subject of discussion. The most important results were being worked out by the committee on iron plates as to the best adaptation of armour for the purposes we want.

To the lecturer's mind, the best kind of armour and the best kind of ship was that combined in the *Warrior*. There was one gun-deck, in which a battery of guns of the heaviest calibre was placed, and that battery was entirely covered with iron plates, backed with 18 inches of wood lying between them and the iron skin of the ship. A great effort was now being made to get rid of this wooden backing, which was liable to rot and contributed no strength to the vessel. When an effective iron backing was constructed, the last improvement would be got that was looked for in the construction of an armour-plated ship. He then explained what were the great difficulties to contend with in the construction of the new fleet. There was no difficulty in the armour; we know we can keep out the shell and the shot; for if Sir William Armstrong pushes us too hard, we know how much more iron will keep him out. What we have to do that is difficult, is to build a ship that will not merely keep out shell and resist shot, but also *possess speed with good sea-going qualities*,—a monstrous difficulty. The problem was purely one of naval architecture. The difficulty arose in this way: the iron armour placed a very great weight in a very bad place; it tended to make the ship top-heavy, and "crank." Now such a vessel rolls, and a very heavy roll might roll her upside under—an event to be avoided as long as possible. The puzzle was, therefore, to make a stable ship that should stand under this great top-weight of armour, and be a good sea-going vessel. The first iron batteries were totally devoid of this quality. They were not "ship-shape," but "sea-chest" shape. Those we sent out to the Black Sea, —and one was under a very good captain,—never got there, or, if they did, they never did anything but come back again. He referred to them because they were a class of ships that were now being agitated for. The question was now being entertained, in the highest quarters, as to whether our new fleet of vessels should be fit for long voyages and able to encounter heavy seas, such as were necessary for the protection of our colonies and commerce; or whether they should be made unseaworthy slow vessels, incapable of following the enemy if he ran away, still less of catching him. They were only adapted for staying at home, and, in order to hurt the enemy, the enemy must come to them to be hurt.

Mr. Scott Russell then went into the details of what he advocated as the best class of shot-proof vessel—the improved *Warrior* class. This class was 58 feet wide, 400 feet long, and more than 7,000 tons in size, and cost, fully armed and fitted for sea, not much short of half a million. The distinguishing quality of the *Warrior* was that she had proved a very excellent sea-going vessel. He was happy to say, that four more of this class were building and two already built. Her armour consisted of 4½-inch iron plates, and extended over the whole length to be protected, and came down about 5 feet below water. This arrangement of armour was such, that its centre of gravity was brought to 6 feet above the water. Now, for a comfortable ship it was held, that the centre of gravity should be near the water-line, and this was therefore a problem of some difficulty; but the ship had turned out, nevertheless, a faster man-of-war than any other, and also an easy, good sea-boat.

This difficulty of top weight was got over, in Stevens's early armour vessel, by a different method from the *Warrior*. Giving up the problem of a sea-going ship, he took to smooth water, and built his vessel much on the mid-ship section of a London barge; the sides sloped outwards under water, and sloped inwards above water, so as to form a narrow upper deck, carrying seven guns, the angles of the sides being usually a little above water, but capable of being sunk to the level of it during action. So little, however, was she adapted for a sea-going ship, that a false side was obliged to be put up to make her at all sea-worthy; and he would only ask our naval officers if such vessels were fit to protect our trade and our possessions on the wide ocean? The Stevens battery is as long as the *Warrior*, is to have as high a speed, and carry a central shot-proof platform, with seven large guns mounted on turn-tables, and worked below decks by machinery. The guns were pointed downwards for loading, and were returned to their positions, and worked thus by men and machinery below the iron deck, and wholly under cover. There were points of this battery so like some recently proposed to be constructed in this country, that it was difficult to conceive the secret had not transpired. This battery was begun in 1854, and is now about to be finished. The Stevens battery is a favourable specimen of a ship built for action in the smooth waters of America. But it is our duty to construct quite a different class of ships, and the *Warrior* is the type of that class. No one can help seeing the superiority, for our uses, of having such vessels only as can go anywhere and do anything, and are faster, more powerful, more enduring, and more sea-worthy than any other steam ships of any other navy.

The *Merrimac* was one of the most beautiful of the American frigates that first set the pattern which has been followed in so many of our own noble vessels,—cut down by the Southerners, and said to have been covered with rails; but, in reality, covered with one coating of plates, six inches broad, and an inch and a half thick, laid diagonally, and a second coating two inches and a half thick in an opposite direction, over a backing of wood. By this simple means she was converted into the formidable vessel that attacked so victoriously the *Congress* and *Cumberland*, and disabling them by the shells poured in, as much as by her power as a ram, destroyed them in a short encounter. The *Monitor*, improvised by Ericsson in three months, is 160 feet long, 40 wide, and 6 feet deep, and below this upper body is another propelled by steam. She carries a revolving iron tower of 6 inches thick, containing two heavy guns. Now the upshot of the contest of these two vessels has decided two points for us. 1. That wooden men-of-war are worthless in presence of iron-coated ships; for the *Merrimac* sank two of them without the slightest difficulty. 2. That wooden ships, even coated with iron, are ineffective against iron ships coated with iron armour; for after a long contest the *Merrimac* failed to injure the *Monitor*, and had to retire.

Captain Coles' shield vessel was next described. His plans were submitted to the Admiralty in 1859, long prior to the construction of Ericsson's battery. These shields and the *Monitor's* are much alike in principle, but Captain Coles' vessel is a far better sea-boat than the *Monitor*, and carries twelve guns instead of one as in that vessel. Coles' shield has a conical roof, and carries one or two Armstrong 100-pounders fixed in slides, which are parts of the interior of the shield, that moves round on a central pivot, and the men working the guns are turned round in it entirely under cover. The construction of the shield ship designed by the Admiralty is altogether better than the *Monitor's*. The lecturer does not wish, however, to see our war-ships replaced by vessels of this class, but by those worthy of ourselves—a fleet of *Warriors*.

Mr. Scott Russell hoped he had now shown how it had come to pass that we had got a useless navy of wooden ships, and only two iron ones ready for service. There were two more nearly ready, not of the *Warrior* class, about which the less he said the more he should praise them. The Government had, however, laid down the lines for four more enlarged *Warriors*, and this was an atonement for the two he would not say anything about. We must then look to a long time before we shall have more than two ships of the *Warrior* class. He considered this delay deplorable. When the Duke of Somerset was asked in the House why he had not sooner built more iron ships, he said, "the House of Commons had been in no particular hurry." And when he was asked about his tardy adoption of Captain Coles' plan, he replied, "he delayed until he had consulted the House of Commons about it." Now the serious difficulty was this, while the French Emperor had been making rapid use of his experience of iron batteries, we had not. In 1854, his were at Kinburn and up to their work. In 1856, Captain Halsted made application to have one of our batteries made the subject of experiment, in order to see if she would resist shot and shell, with a view then to make an iron navy. The Admiralty did have the *Trusty* made ready; and had her out. Then they took fright and sent her back again; and so we lost two years start. He would now mention a fact of which there was no longer any grounds for concealment. In 1855 he submitted to the surveyor of the navy a drawing and model of the *Warrior* class of ships. That model was now on the table, and exhibited all the important features of construction of the *Warrior* class. But the Admiralty delayed the construction of the first ship of the class till 1859; and so we lost our just claim to the original design of iron ships in armour, with sea-going qualities and speed united. It was Sir John Pakington who, in 1858, first ordered an iron fleet to be commenced, on a joint design of himself, Mr. Scott Russell, and the surveyor of the navy. But the French Emperor had already commenced the *Gloire*; so that instead of being, as we might have been, three years ahead of the French Emperor, our delay had given him the lead, and deprived us of our true priority. He concluded by expressing a hope, that the delays and doubts of the Admiralty might now end; that a fleet of enlarged *Warriors* would speedily be constructed, fit to carry English sailors on every sea where our colonies and commerce required their protection; and that no more of our time or money would be wasted in the consideration or construction of inferior classes of vessel, unfit for ocean navigation, and good only to stay at home until the enemy should choose to come and be hurt. We had now proved our *Warrior* class to be sound, wholesome sea-going ships, and to be unparalleled in speed. Of course, improvements would in future be made, and changes introduced. But when our constructions truly embodied the best knowledge and experience of their time, our responsibility was fulfilled, and at present we know of no match for the enlarged *Warrior* class of 7,000 tons, and, therefore, there can no longer remain any excuse for continuing in our present inefficient condition.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

LIST OF MEETINGS FOR NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY.

GEOGRAPHICAL—Burlington House, at 1 P.M. Anniversary Meeting.

TUESDAY.

CIVIL ENGINEERS—25, Great George-street, Westminster, at 8 P.M. President's Conversation, at 9 P.M.

MEDICAL AND CHIRURGICAL—53, Berners-street, Oxford-street, at 8½ P.M.

ZOOLOGICAL—11, Hanover-square, at 9 P.M. "On the Geographical Distribution of the Paradise Birds." By Mr. Wallace.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. Rev. G. Butler, "On the Art of the Last Century."

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION—32, Sackville-street, at 8½ P.M. 1. "On the Household Expenses of the Countess of Pembroke. Temp. Edw. I." By Rev. C. H. Hartshorne. 2. "Further Notes on Leathern Vessels." By Mr. Syer Cuming.

THURSDAY.

SOCIETY OF ARTS—John-street, Adelphi, at 8 P.M. "On the International Exhibition." By William Hawes, Esq.

ANTIQUARIES—Somerset House, at 8½ P.M.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. Dr. Lyon Playfair, "On the Progress of the Chemical Arts, 1851-1862."

FRIDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 8 P.M. "A Plea for Cotton and for Industry." By T. Bazley, Esq., M.P.

SATURDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street. Professor T. Anderson, "On Agricultural Chemistry."

THE LONDON REVIEW, AND WEEKLY JOURNAL OF POLITICS, LITERATURE, ART, AND SOCIETY.

PRICE SIXPENCE UNSTAMPED, SEVENPENCE STAMPED.

CONTENTS OF NO. XCIX., MAY 24, 1862:—

Conservative Tactics.
The French in Mexico.
General McClellan's Strategy.
The Movement in North Italy.
Mr. Laing's Budget.

Cannibalism.
The Flood in the Fens.
Degrees for Ladies.
The Rev. Mr. Bellew again.
The Two Councils of Roman Divines.
Acclimatisation.

Men of Mark. No. XLII.—The King of the Belgians, K.G.

REVIEWS:—

Life and Correspondence of Lord Anselm.
Ancient Gaelic Poetry.
Freytag's Pictures of German Life.
Across the Carpathians.

Music.
Contemporary Science.
Correspondence.
Scientific Intelligence.
Learned Societies and Institutions.

NOTICE.

The LONDON REVIEW is now Published on SATURDAY Morning, in time for the early trains, and delivery in the country on the day of publication. It may be had at all respectable News-agents in London and the neighbourhood, by 8 A.M. on Saturday Morning.

Advertisements are received up to TWELVE o'clock on FRIDAY.

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ADVERTISEMENTS.

THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.—Enormous success of MR. SOTHERN as Lord Dundreary. BROTHER SAM'S LETTER nightly encored.—The New Ballet, in which the renowned Spanish Dancer PEREA NENA will appear.—Monday, May 26, and during the week, commence at Seven, with THE WOLF AND THE LAMB: Mr. Howe, Mr. Chippendale, Mr. W. Farren, Miss Oliver. After which, at a Quarter to Eight precisely (132nd time), OUR AMERICAN COUSIN: Mr. Buckstone, Mr. Sothern, Mrs. Charles Young, &c.; with a New Spanish Ballet, LA CONTRABANDISTA, by Senora Perea Nena, Ricardo Moragas, Fanny Wright, and the Corps de Ballet. New Scenery; and the New Music by Don Nicolas Mannett. Concluding with MY HUSBAND'S GHOST.

MR. CHARLES HALLÉ'S BEETHOVEN RECITALS, at ST. JAMES'S HALL.—The Second CONCERT takes place on FRIDAY AFTERNOON next, MAY 31, when Mr. Hallé will play the Sonatas Nos. 1, 2, and 3, of Op. 10, and the Sonata Pathétique, Op. 13. Vocalist, Miss Banks; Accompanist, Mr. Harold Thomas. To commence at three o'clock precisely. Prices of admission:—Sofa stalls, 10s. 6d.; balcony, 7s.; unreserved seats, 3s.; at CHAPPELL & CO.'s, 50, New Bond-street; CRAMER & CO.'s, 201, Regent-street; KEITH, PROWSE, & CO.'s, 49, Cheapside; and at AUSTIN'S, 28, Piccadilly.

MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS.—The next Concert will take place on MONDAY Evening, JUNE 2nd, at ST. JAMES'S HALL. Pianoforte, Herr Pauer; Violin, Herr Laul (his first appearance this season); Violoncello, Signor Piatti; Vocalists, Miss Banks and Sims Reeves. Conductor, Mr. Benedict. For full particulars, see Programmes. Sofa-stalls, 5s.; Balcony, 3s.; Admission, 1s. Tickets at CHAPPELL & CO.'s, 50, New Bond-street.

MR. LINDSAY SLOPER'S SECOND PERFORMANCE OF PIANOFORTE MUSIC (Interpersed with Vocal Music), on THURSDAY AFTERNOON next, JUNE 5th, at ST. JAMES'S HALL. To commence at Three o'clock. Vocalists:—Miss Banks, Mr. Tennant, and Mr. Santley. Pianoforte, Mr. Charles Hallé and Mr. Lindsay Sloper. Violin, Herr Joachim. At the Pianoforte, Mr. Harold Thomas and Mr. Sullivan. Sofa-stalls, 10s. 6d.; Balcony, 5s. Tickets at MR. LINDSAY SLOPER'S, 70, Cambridge-terrace, Hyde-park; at CHAPPELL & CO.'s, 50, New Bond-street; and of all Music-sellers.

POLYTECHNIC.—JAPAN.—Wilson's Grand Panorama, Painted in Oil, by JAPANESE ARTISTS, on 9,000 feet of canvas, and showing with scrupulous fidelity the Costumes, Temples, Streets, Bridges, Scenery, and Rivers of the Japanese Empire. This unique and curious Panorama was painted secretly, by native artists who would, if discovered, have incurred the penalty of Death, and it will be exhibited daily at Half-past One and Half-past Five.—Scientific Lectures by Professor J. H. Pepper.—New Gorgeous Scenic Optical and Prismatic Fountain Spectacle.—Musical Entertainments and Concerts by George Buckland, Esq., and the Brouil Family.—Beautiful Dissolving Views illustrating London in Ancient and Modern Times.—Paris as it is.—The Holy Land.—America.—The Merrimac and Monitor.—See Weekly Programme of Eight Pages.—Open from Twelve to Five and Seven to Ten.—Admission, One Shilling.

FRIKELL'S PRIZE TRICKS.—HERR WILJALBA FRIKELL will repeat his wonderful tricks, in his Entertainment of Natural Magic, at St. James's Hall, every evening at eight, except Saturday; Saturday afternoon at three.—Stalls, 3s.; area, 2s.; gallery, 1s. Tickets at CHAPPELL & CO.'s, 50, New Bond-street; and at AUSTIN'S, 28, Piccadilly.

LESSON IN MAGIC, by WILJALBA FRIKELL, at the St. James's Hall, every evening, at eight, except Saturday; Saturday afternoon, at three.—By desire, between the first and second acts of Herr Frikell's Entertainment, every evening, he will give a lesson in magic, and explain some of his popular tricks of sleight of hand.—Stalls, 3s.; area, 2s.; gallery, 1s.

HOLMAN HUNT'S GREAT PICTURE, "THE FINDING OF THE SAVIOUR IN THE TEMPLE," commenced in Jerusalem in 1854, is NOW ON VIEW at the GERMAN GALLERY, 163, New Bond-street.—Admission, 1s.

SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS.—THE FIFTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION IS NOW OPEN, at their Gallery, 5, Pall-mall East (close to the National Gallery), from Nine till Seven. Admittance, 1s. Catalogue, 6d.

JOSEPH J. JENKINS, Secretary.

ROYAL BOTANIC SOCIETY, REGENT'S PARK.

THE FIRST EXHIBITION OF PLANTS, FLOWERS, AND FRUIT, will take place on WEDNESDAY NEXT, MAY 28th. Tickets to be had at the Gardens only, by vouchers from Fellows or Members of the Society, price 5s.; or on the Exhibition Day, 7s. 6d. each.

The Gates open at TWO o'clock.

THE EXHIBITION OF AMERICAN PLANTS, MONDAY, JUNE 9th.

UNITY FIRE AND LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATIONS, Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City.

The Shareholders of these Associations number about Five Thousand, representing subscribed capitals of nearly Two Millions.

United Annual Incomes, £130,000. Good bonus, liberal rates, and popular features. Loans to any amount in connection with Life Policies.

The Premium Incomes in 1861 exceeded those of 1860 by upwards of Thirty Thousand Pounds.

CORNELIUS WALFORD, Manager.

STAR LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY. Established 1843.

HEAD OFFICE, 43, MOORGATE-STREET, LONDON.

Extracts from the Report for the year ending Dec. 31, 1861, and presented at the Annual Meeting, held March 3, 1862:—

During the year 1861, 1,532 Proposals were submitted to the Directors for the Assurance of £513,040; of this number, 1,115 were completed, and Policies issued for the sum of £361,960; yielding in Annual Premiums £12,868. 3s. 11d., and 201 stood over for completion at the end of the year; the remainder were either declined or withdrawn.

It will be seen that the new income is larger than in any previous year of the Society's existence.

The Statement of Accounts was read, which indicated the following gratifying results:—

The Society's Income is now £100,930. 8s. 2d.

The Accumulated Fund is £414,231. 5s. 9d.

Being increased during the year by the addition of £53,701. 2s. 9d.

The following Table, in continuation of that presented in the last Annual Report, will best illustrate the progress of the Society during the last six years:—

Year.	No. of New Policies Issued.	Sums Assured thereby.	Annual Premiums therefrom.	Total Accumulations from all sources.
1856	603	244,451	6,597 18 3	202,110 7 2
1857	572	221,122	7,735 9 5	238,055 1 7
1858	653	235,350	8,582 0 9	274,797 15 4
1859	812	294,465	10,172 19 6	309,444 5 2
1860	902	336,290	11,312 15 9	360,530 3 0
1861	1,115	361,960	12,868 3 11	414,231 5 9

Applications for assurance may be addressed to any of the Agents of the Society, or to

JESSE HOBSON, Secretary.

STANDARD LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

Was Established in 1825, and during the last fifteen years the annual average value of New Assurances has exceeded Half a Million sterling, being the largest business transacted in that period by any Life Assurance Office.

From 1846 to 1851 the amount of Assurances effected was £2,245,461 13 0
From 1851 to 1856 the amount of Assurances effected was 2,541,840 5 1
From 1856 to 1861 the amount of Assurances effected was 2,802,958 14 5

Total in fifteen years £7,590,260 12 6

Accumulated Fund £1,915,192. 17s. 7d.

Annual Revenue 314,497 11 1

The Directors invite particular attention to the New Terms and Conditions of the STANDARD Policy.

FREE ASSURANCE.

The Assured under these Policies may proceed to and reside in any part of the world without payment of extra Premium; may serve in Militia and Volunteer Corps, in time of peace or war, within the United Kingdom; and, further, no Policy of five years' duration shall be liable to any ground of challenge whatever connected with the original documents on which the Assurance was granted.

POLICIES OF FIVE YEARS' DURATION effected for the whole term of life at a uniform rate of Premium, may be renewed within thirteen months of date of lapsing, on payment of a fine; during which period the risk shall be binding on the Company, in the event of death, subject to the deduction of Premiums unpaid and Fines.

POLICIES of less than FIVE YEARS' DURATION may be renewed within thirteen months, on very favourable terms.

SURRENDER VALUES granted, after payment of ONE ANNUAL PREMIUM on "With Profit" Policies, or THREE ANNUAL PREMIUMS on those "Without Profits." Loans granted on such Policies within their value.

By Order of the Directors,

WILL THOS. THOMSON, Manager.

H. JONES WILLIAMS, Resident Secretary.

LONDON, 82, King William-street.

LAW LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY, FLEET STREET, LONDON. ESTABLISHED 1823.

The invested Assets of this Society exceed FIVE MILLIONS STERLING; its Annual Income is FOUR HUNDRED AND NINETY-FIVE THOUSAND POUNDS.

Up to 31st December, 1861, the Society had paid in Claims upon death:—

Sums Assured	£4,329,378
Bonus thereon	1,115,298

Together £5,444,676

The Profits are divided every fifth year. All participating Policies effected during the present year will, if in force beyond 31st December, 1864, share in the Profits to be divided up to that date.

At the Divisions of Profits hitherto made, Reversionary Bonuses exceeding THREE AND A HALF MILLIONS have been added to the several Policies.

Prospectuses, Forms of Proposal, and Statements of Accounts, may be had on application to the Actuary, at the Office, Fleet-street, London.

WILLIAM SAMUEL DOWNES, Actuary.

February, 1862.

SOVEREIGN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY, 48, St. James's-street, London, S.W. TRUSTEES.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Shrewsbury and Talbot, Sir Claude Scott, Bart. Henry Pownall, Esq.

DIRECTORS.

Chairman—The Lord Arthur Lennox.
Deputy Chairman—Sir James Carmichael, Bart.
John Ashburner, Esq., M.D.
T. M. B. Batard, Esq.
Lieut.-Col. Bathurst.
John Gardiner, Esq.
J. W. Huddleston, Esq., Q.C.
Charles Osborne, Esq.

BANKERS.

Sir Claude Scott, Bart., & Co.

Founded in 1845.

REPORT OF DIRECTORS, and Statement of Proceedings at the Ordinary Meeting of Proprietors, held on the 7th MAY, 1862.

LORD ARTHUR LENNOX, in the Chair.

The Report of the Directors, made in the Spring of last year, appealed to the Proprietors and others interested in the Office, to assist the Directors in making 1861 the most successful year of the Company's operations; and, notwithstanding the absence of general commercial prosperity throughout the country, the Directors are happy to say that in many respects the desired result of their appeal has been realized.

This year was, however, remarkable in the experience of this Office, as it is believed it was in that of other similar Institutions, for the number of lapsed Assurances, especially in those districts where industry has been impeded by the suspension of our commercial relations with America.

At the same time the business effected has been greater than at any former period, the New Premiums amounting to £6,055. 11s. 3d. Assuring £171,250 by the issue of 722 Policies.

The point, however, on which the Directors have most reason to congratulate the Proprietors is, that after a very careful and rigid investigation into the position and prospects of the Company, made in pursuance of the requirements of the Deed of Settlement, by Mr. PETER HARDY, the eminent Actuary, the result, as embodied in the following Report, is of the most satisfactory character.

"TO THE CHAIRMAN AND DIRECTORS OF THE SOVEREIGN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY."

"GENTLEMEN,—I have the honour to submit herewith a full statement of the result of the valuation, just completed, of the Assets and Liabilities of the Sovereign Life Assurance Company, up to or as of the 31st December, 1861.

"This investigation has been, on the present occasion, a work of considerable magnitude and labour, as the number of Policies actually in force exceeds 5,000, covering Assurances to over One Million Sterling, and embracing almost every class or description of Life Assurance.

"I am happy to be able to assure you that the condition of the Company is sound and prosperous, and holds out every prospect of increased success. The bonus, which the Directors may safely declare as the result of this valuation, is larger in amount, both as regards the shareholders and the assured, than that declared on any previous occasion; and this bonus has been fairly earned by the past operations of the Society, without in the smallest degree touching any portion of the future profits.

"The valuation has been made with the greatest care and exactness, and the reserve for the future is most ample for the purposes of safety, and quite sufficient, with care and management, to maintain hereafter a proportionately favourable rate of improvement.

"I have the honour to be,

"GENTLEMEN,

"Your very faithful servant,

(Signed) "PETER HARDY,

"Actuary.

"April, 1862."

It may be remembered, that on the declaration of the last Bonus the Actuary strongly urged the propriety of postponing the Actual Division of Profits until the alternate triennial valuation; the prudence of which course, though it naturally occasioned disappointment in some few instances, is now apparent; and it is most gratifying to the Board, while reviewing the peculiar difficulties which those alone who are actively engaged in the business of Life Assurance know to have existed during the last six years, to present so favourable a Report, especially as it emanates from a gentleman of such high character and professional standing as Mr. HARDY.

Without in the smallest degree encroaching on future profits the addition sanctioned by this investigation will give to each Share a Bonus of 4s. 6d. or 9 per cent. on the paid-up capital, being three times the sum allotted on the last occasion, and 75 per cent. of the divisible Surplus will be added to all Policyholders, assured at participating rates, on the 31st December last, in proportion to the premiums paid since the last Division.

The Circulars, announcing the allotment to individual Policies, will be issued as soon as practicable.

The Directors recommend that the usual Dividend of 5 per cent., free of Income-tax, be paid on the Capital for the half-year ending 31st December last.

The Directors retiring are LORD ARTHUR LENNOX; T. M. B. BATARD, Esq.; and JOHN GARDINER, Esq., who, being eligible, offer themselves for re-election.

(Signed) ARTHUR LENNOX, Chairman.

WATERLOO LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.
THIS COMPANY OFFERS THE SECURITY
 of a Capital of £400,000. The last Bonus was in 1859, the next valuation will be in 1864.

Claims within the days of Grace paid by this Company.
IMMEDIATE AND DEFERRED ANNUITIES AND ENDOWMENTS.
 New Premium Income for the year 1861, £9,173. 12s.
 Policies granted against ACCIDENTS or DISEASE totally disabling the Assured, for a small extra premium.
 Paid-up Policies granted after five Annual Payments.
 Half Credit Premium system for five years.
 Forms on application to the Office, 355, Strand, London.

ACCIDENTS ARE UNAVOIDABLE!!
 Every one should therefore Provide against them. **THE RAILWAY PASSENGERS ASSURANCE COMPANY** grant Policies for sums from £100 to £1,000, Assuring against Accidents of all kinds. An Annual payment of £3, secures £1,000 in case of Death by Accident, or a Weekly Allowance of £6 to the Assured while laid up by Injury.

Apply for Forms of Proposal, or any information, to the Provincial Agents, the Booking Clerks at the Railway Stations, or to the Head Office, 64, Cornhill, London, E.C. £102,517 have been paid by this Company as compensation for Fifty-six fatal cases, and 5,041 cases of personal injury.

The Sole Company privileged to issue Railway Journey Insurance Tickets, costing 1d., 2d., or 3d., at all the principal Stations.

EMPOWERED BY SPECIAL ACT OF PARLIAMENT, 1849.
WILLIAM J. VIAN, Secretary.
 64, Cornhill, E.C.

THE CONSERVATIVE LAND SOCIETY.
 Trustees: VISCOUNT RANELAGH and J. C. COBOLD, Esq., M.P.—FREEHOLD BUILDING PLOTS, in the six Home and other counties, in large or small quantities, with every convenience of access by railroad, river, or omnibus, and roads and drainage completed. One-eighth of the cost of the Land to be paid at once, and the remainder of the purchase money to be cleared off in monthly or other easy instalments, as may be arranged. Houses for or in occupation to be Let or Sold. For plans and particulars apply at the Offices, 33, Norfolk-street, Strand, London, W.C.

CHARLES LEWIS GRUNEISEN, Secretary.
 Prospectuses explanatory of the Share and Deposit Department, will be sent free of charge to any part of the world. No partnership liabilities, and the taking of land is quite optional.

THE CHANNEL ISLANDS HOTEL COMPANY (Limited).—Incorporated with Limited Liability under the Joint-Stock Companies' Acts, and to be Registered under the Law of Limited Liability in the Island of Jersey.—Capital, £80,000, in 16,000 shares of £5 each.—Deposit, 5s. per share on application, and £1 per share on allotment.

DIRECTORS.
 Thomas Page, Esq., C.E., Tower Cressy, Campden-hill, London.
 Edward Severn, Esq., The Spa, Gloucester.
 Joshua Le Bailly, Esq., Jurat, and President of the Chamber of Commerce, Jersey.
 Abraham Bishop, Esq., Hirzel House, President of the Chamber of Commerce, Guernsey.
 Frederic Carrel, Esq., Merchant, Jersey.
 W. H. Causzar, Esq., 110, Westbourne-terrace, London.
 Alexander Halcomb, Esq., London-road, Gloucester.

BANKERS.
 The Mercantile Union Bank, Jersey; Messrs. Eliot, Pearce, Eliot, & Eliot, Weymouth; Messrs. Glyn & Co., Lombard-street, London; the Gloucestershire Banking Company, Gloucester, and Branches; the Guernsey Commercial Banking Company, Guernsey.

SOLICITORS.
 Richard Hare, Esq., Weymouth; R. P. Marett, Esq., H.M.'s Solicitor-General, Jersey; T. D. H. Utermarck, H.M.'s Attorney-General, Guernsey.

ARCHITECTS.
 Messrs. Medland & Maberly, London and Gloucester.
BROKERS.
 Messrs. Sims & Hill, 3, Bartholomew-lane, London; Messrs. P. Nicolle, Gray, & Co., St. Helier's, Jersey.

SECRETARY.—Joseph Maunders, Esq., Weymouth.
AUDITORS.
 Messrs. Johnstone, Cooper, Wintle, & Co., Public Accountants, 5, Lothbury, London; L. J. H. Young, Esq., 4, Trafalgar-square, London.

The objects for which this Company is established are to purchase, or to take on lease, or otherwise acquire land, buildings, and premises, in any of the Channel Islands, to build hotels on any land so acquired, to furnish the same, and to carry on the trade and business of hotel-keepers.

The Directors have personally visited the Island of Jersey, and succeeded in securing a most eligible site (La Frégondière) on a gentle declivity, with an extensive view, and protected from the north and east winds, combining in itself all the advantages of a marine situation, with the shelter and security of a town.

The property includes some substantial buildings and offices, and several acres of well laid-out grounds, beautifully wooded, plentifully supplied with water, and surrounded by a fence wall. On this site it is intended to erect a first-class hotel, with which will be combined a large and elegant assembly-room, for balls, concerts, and other public purposes.

The memorandum and articles of association of the Company can be seen on application to the Secretary or Solicitors.

Applications for shares must be addressed to the Directors, Secretary, Solicitors, or Brokers, and a deposit of 5s. per share made to any of the Bankers of the Company, or forwarded on application to the Secretary.

Prospectuses and forms of application for shares may be obtained at the offices of the Company, Weymouth; or of the Secretary, Solicitors, Directors, Brokers, or Bankers.

LONDON LIBRARY, 12, ST. JAMES'S-SQUARE.—The ANNUAL MEETING of the MEMBERS will take place on SATURDAY, the 31st instant.

The Chair will be taken at THREE o'clock P.M. by the President the Right Hon. the EARL OF CLARENDON, K.G.

By order of the Committee,
ROBERT HARRISON, Secretary.

GREAT NORTHERN RAILWAY. WHITSUNTIDE HOLIDAYS.

ORDINARY RETURN TICKETS by regular trains issued between the Stations where they may usually be obtained, on SATURDAY, 7th June, and intervening days, will be available for Return on any day up to, and including, Saturday, 14th June.

CHEAP EXCURSION TRAINS will leave London (King's-cross Station) as under:—

On SATURDAY, 7th June, returning only on Thursday, 12th June—At 8 a.m. for—

Fares for the Double Journey.		Fares for the Double Journey.	
First Class.	Car.	First Class.	Car.
Peterborough 12s. 6d.	6s. 0d.	Lincoln..... 18s. 0d.	9s. 0d.
Boston..... 16s. 0d.	8s. 0d.	Louth..... 22s. 0d.	11s. 0d.
Horncastle... 18s. 0d.	9s. 0d.	Grt. Grimsby 22s. 0d.	11s. 0d.

At 10-5 a.m. for—
 Stamford..... 14s. 0d. 7s. 0d. | Grantham... 14s. 0d. 7s. 0d.
 Bourne..... 14s. 0d. 7s. 0d.

And
 On SATURDAY, 7th June, returning only on Thursday, 12th June,—

On MONDAY, 9th June, returning only on Thursday, 12th June,—

On THURSDAY, 12th June, returning only on Monday, 16th June,—

At 10-5 a.m. for—

Fares for the Double Journey.		Fares for the Double Journey.	
First Class.	Car.	First Class.	Car.
Nottingham 18s. 0d.	9s. 0d.	Manchester... 21s. 0d.	12s. 6d.
Barnsley..... 21s. 0d.	12s. 6d.	Liverpool..... 21s. 0d.	12s. 6d.
Huddersfield 21s. 0d.	12s. 6d.		

At 10-30 a.m. for—
 Newark..... 18s. 0d. 9s. 0d. | Bradford..... 20s. 0d. 10s. 0d.
 Sheffield..... 20s. 0d. 10s. 0d. | Halifax..... 20s. 0d. 10s. 0d.
 Doncaster... 18s. 0d. 9s. 0d. | York..... 20s. 0d. 10s. 0d.
 Wakefield... 20s. 0d. 10s. 0d. | Hull, via Milford..... 25s. 0d. 12s. 6d.
 Leeds..... 20s. 0d. 10s. 0d.

Tickets will also be issued on SATURDAY, 7th June, returning either on Thursday, 12th, or Monday, 16th June; and on MONDAY, 9th June, returning either on Thursday, 12th, or Monday, 16th June,—

To HUDDERSFIELD, MANCHESTER, and LIVERPOOL.

Fares for the double journey,
 First Class..... 37s. | Closed Carriages..... 17s.

Further particulars given in Bills, which can be obtained at King's-cross and other principal Stations; or at any of the Company's Receiving Offices in London.

Tickets may be obtained on the two previous days to the running of each Train at King's-cross Station and at the Bull and Mouth; Angel-street, St. Martin's-le-Grand; No. 32, Regent-circus; and 264, Holborn; also on the morning of the running of each Train at King's-cross Station only.

Excursion Trains will run to London on the 7th, 9th, and 12th June, returning on the 12th and 16th June.

SEYMOUR CLARKE, General Manager.
 London, King's-cross Station, May 10th, 1862.

GREAT NORTHERN RAILWAY. INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.

ORDINARY RETURN TICKETS to LONDON will be made available for SEVEN DAYS, from Stations where they may usually be obtained north of and including GRANTHAM and BOSTON, by all Trains, from the 1st June to the Close of the Exhibition.

CHEAP EXCURSION TRAINS will also run from the principal Stations to LONDON, on the 2nd, 7th, 9th, 12th, 16th, 18th, 23rd, 25th, and 30th June.

For particulars see Handbills, to be had at the Stations.

SEYMOUR CLARKE, General Manager.
 London, King's Cross Station, May 20th, 1862.

IMPERIAL HOTEL, Great Malvern.—The Public is respectfully informed that the IMPERIAL HOTEL will be OPENED in JULY NEXT, for the RECEPTION of VISITORS.

The tariff will be so arranged that families and gentlemen may engage suites of apartments or single rooms, at a fixed charge per day, including attendance, and may either take their meals privately or at the table d'hôte, public breakfast, tea, and supper.

A wholesale wine and spirit establishment for the sale of wines and beverages of the highest class will be attached to the Hotel.

Warm, cold, vapour, douche, running Sitz, and shower baths, will be obtainable at all times in the Hotel, a portion of which is set apart for these baths.

A covered way will conduct the visitors direct from the railway platform to the Hotel.

GEORGE CURTIS, Manager.

COLLARD AND COLLARD'S NEW WEST-END ESTABLISHMENT, 18, GROSVENOR-STREET, BOND-STREET, where all communications are to be addressed. PIANOFORTES of all Classes for Sale and Hire.—City Branch, 26, Cheapside, E.C.

CRAMER & Co.'s PIANOFORTE GALLERY.
 THE LARGEST IN EUROPE.
 207 & 209, Regent-street.

PIANOFORTES.—CRAMER & CO.—The best by all the best makers.—207 & 209, Regent-street.

BROADWOOD & SONS.—Their Best PIANOFORTES at CRAMER & CO.'S GREAT GALLERY, 207 & 209, Regent-street.

ERARD'S Best GRAND PIANOFORTES at CRAMER & CO.'S GREAT GALLERY, 207 & 209, Regent-street.

COLLARD'S Best PIANOFORTES at CRAMER & CO.'S GREAT GALLERY, 207 & 209, Regent-street.

THE BEST SHOW OF IRON BEDSTEADS in the Kingdom is WILLIAM S. BURTON'S. He has Four Large Rooms devoted to the exclusive show of Iron and Brass Bedsteads and Children's Cots, with appropriate Bedding and Bed-hangings. Portable Folding Bedsteads, from 11s.; Patent Iron Bedsteads, fitted with dovetail joints and patent sacking, from 14s. 6d.; and Cots, from 15s. 6d. each; handsome Ornamental Iron and Brass Bedsteads, in great variety, from £2. 13s. 6d. to £20.

THE PERFECT SUBSTITUTE for SILVER.
 The REAL NICKEL SILVER, introduced more than twenty-five years ago by WILLIAM S. BURTON, when PLATED by the patent process of Messrs. Elkington & Co., is beyond all comparison the very best article next to sterling silver that can be employed as such, either usefully or ornamentally, as by no possible test can it be distinguished from real silver.

A small useful set, guaranteed of first quality for finish and durability, as follows:—

	Fiddle or old Silver Pattern.	Thread or Bruna-wick Pattern.	Lily Pattern.	King's or Military &c.
12 Table Forks.....	£ s. d. 1 13 0	£ s. d. 2 4 0	£ s. d. 2 10 0	£ s. d. 2 15 0
12 Table Spoons.....	1 13 0	2 4 0	2 10 0	2 15 0
12 Dessert Forks.....	1 4 0	1 12 0	1 15 0	1 17 0
12 Dessert Spoons.....	1 4 0	1 12 0	1 15 0	1 17 0
12 Tea Spoons.....	0 16 0	1 2 0	1 5 0	1 7 0
6 Egg Spoons, gilt bowls	0 10 0	0 13 6	0 15 0	0 15 0
2 Sauce Ladles.....	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 9 0	0 9 0
1 Gravy Spoon.....	0 6 0	0 10 0	0 11 0	0 12 0
2 Salt Spoons, gilt bowls	0 3 4	0 4 6	0 5 0	0 5 0
1 Mustard Spoon, gt. bowl	0 1 8	0 2 3	0 2 6	0 2 6
1 Pair of Sugar Tongs...	0 2 6	0 3 6	0 4 0	0 4 6
1 Pair of Fish Carvers...	1 4 0	1 7 6	1 10 0	1 12 0
1 Butter Knife.....	0 2 6	0 5 6	0 6 0	0 7 0
1 Soup Ladle.....	0 10 0	0 17 0	0 17 0	1 0 0
1 Sugar Sifter.....	0 3 3	0 4 6	0 5 0	0 5 6
Total.....	9 19 9	13 10 3	14 19 6	16 4 0

Any article to be had singly at the same prices. An oak chest to contain the above, and a relative number of knives, &c., £2. 15s. Tea and coffee sets, dish covers and corner dishes, cruet and liqueur frames, &c., at proportionate prices. All kinds of re-plating done by the patent process.

CUTLERY warranted.—The most varied assortment of TABLE CUTLERY in the world, all warranted, is on sale at WILLIAM S. BURTON'S, at prices that are remunerative only because of the largeness of the sales.

IVORY HANDLES.	Table Knives Per Dozen.	Dessert Knives Per Dozen.	Carvers Per Pair.
3½-inch Ivory Handles.....	12 6	10 0	4 3
3½-inch Fine Ivory Handles.....	15 0	11 6	4 3
4-inch Ivory Balance Handles.....	18 0	14 0	4 6
4-inch Fine Ivory Handles.....	24 0	17 0	7 3
4-inch Finest African Ivory Handles	32 0	26 0	11 0
Ditto with Silver Ferules.....	40 0	33 0	12 6
Ditto, Carved Handles, Silver Ferules.....	50 0	43 0	17 6
Nickel Electro Silver Handles, any Pattern.....	25 0	19 0	7 6
Silver Handles, of any Pattern.....	84 0	51 0	21 0

BONE AND HORN HANDLES.
 KNIVES AND FORKS PER DOZEN.
 White Bone Handles..... 11 0 8 6 2 6
 Ditto Balance Handles..... 21 0 17 0 4 6
 Black Horn Rimmed Shoulders..... 17 0 4 0 4 0
 Ditto Very Strong Riveted Handles 12 0 9 0 3 0

The largest stock in existence of Plated Dessert Knives and Forks, in cases and otherwise, and of the New Plated Fish Carvers.

WILLIAM S. BURTON'S GENERAL FURNISHING IRONMONGERY CATALOGUE may be had gratis, and free by post. It contains upwards of 500 illustrations of his limited Stock of Sterling Silver and Electro-Plate, Nickel Silver and Britannia Metal Goods, Dish Covers, Hot Water Dishes, Stoves, Fenders, Marble Chimney-pieces, Kitchen Ranges, Lamps, Gasaliers, Tea Trays, Urns, and Kettles, Clocks, Table Cutlery, Baths, Toilet Ware, Turnery, Iron & Brass Bedsteads, Bedding, Bedroom Cabinet Furniture, &c., with Lists of Prices and Plans of the Twenty large Show Rooms, at 39, Oxford-street, W.; 1, 1A, 2, 3, and 4, Newman-street; 4, 5, and 6, Perry's-place; and 1, Newman-mews, London.

CHOICE PORT OF 1858 VINTAGE.—THE COMET YEAR.
HEDGES & BUTLER have imported a large quantity of this valuable Wine, respecting which is the general opinion that it will equal the celebrated comet year of 1811. It is increasing in value, and the time must soon arrive when Port of this distinguished vintage will be at double its present price. Messrs. Hedges & Butler are now offering it at 36s., 42s., and 48s. per dozen.

Pure sound Claret, with considerable flavour,
 24s. and 30s. per doz.
 Superior Claret..... 36s. 42s. 48s. 60s. 72s. "
 Good Dinner Sherry..... 24s. 30s. "
 Superior Pale, Golden, or Brown Sherry..... 36s. 42s. 48s. "
 Port, from first-class Shippers, 36s. 42s. 48s. 60s. "
 Hock and Moselle... 30s. 36s. 42s. 60s. to 120s. "
 Sparkling ditto..... 60s. 66s. 78s. "
 Sparkling Champagne... 42s. 48s. 60s. 66s. 78s. "

Fine old Sack, rare White Port, Imperial Tokay, Malaga, Frontignac, Constantia, Vermuth, and other rare Wines.

Fine Old Pale Cognac Brandy, 60s. and 72s. per dozen.

On receipt of a Post-office Order or reference, any quantity with a priced List of all other Wines, will be forwarded immediately by

HEDGES & BUTLER,
 London, 155, Regent-Street, W.
 Brighton, 30, King's-road,
 (Originally established A.D. 1807.)

EDSTEAD
ON'S. He has
ow of Iron and
opriate Bedding
ada, from 11s. 6d.
ints and patent
d. each; hand-
a great variety.

for SILVER.
need more than
MURTON, when
Elkington & Co.,
next to sterling
usefully or orna-
tinguished from

ity for finish and

King's or Military Pattern.	Lily Pattern.
2 s. d. 2 s. d.	2 s. d. 2 s. d.
2 10 0 2 15 0	2 10 0 2 15 0
2 10 0 2 15 0	2 10 0 2 15 0
1 15 0 1 17 0	1 15 0 1 17 0
1 15 0 1 17 0	1 15 0 1 17 0
1 5 0 1 7 0	1 5 0 1 7 0
0 15 0 0 15 0	0 15 0 0 15 0
0 9 0 0 9 0	0 9 0 0 9 0
0 11 0 0 12 0	0 11 0 0 12 0
0 5 0 0 5 0	0 5 0 0 5 0
0 2 0 0 2 0	0 2 0 0 2 0
0 4 0 0 4 0	0 4 0 0 4 0
1 10 0 1 12 0	1 10 0 1 12 0
0 6 0 0 7 0	0 6 0 0 7 0
0 17 0 1 0 0	0 17 0 1 0 0
0 5 0 0 5 0	0 5 0 0 5 0

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URTON'S, at prices
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Dessert Knives	Carvers Per Dozen.	Per Pair.
10 0	4 3	
11 6	4 3	
13 0	4 6	
17 0	7 3	
28 0	11 0	
33 0	12 6	
43 0	17 6	
19 0	7 6	
54 0	21 0	

ed Dessert Knives and
the New Plated Fish
S GENERAL
GGERY CATALOGUE
it contains upwards of
of Sterling Silver and
of Metal Goods, Dish-
ers, Marble Chimney-
liers, Tea Trays, Urns,
s, Toilet Ware, Turnery,
edroom Cabinet Furni-
es of the Twenty large
s; 1, 1a, 2, 3, and 4
place; and 1, New-
ad.

THE COMET YEAR
ve imported a large
e, respecting which it is
e celebrated comet year
and the time most aus-
vintage will be at double
Butler are now offering

able flavour,	24s. and 30s. per doz.
48s. 60s. 72s. "	
..... 24s. 30s. "	
own	
36s. 42s. 48s. "	
42s. 48s. 60s. "	
60s. to 120s. "	
60s. 66s. 78s. "	
60s. 66s. 78s. "	

Imperial Tokay, Malaga,
and other rare Wines.
and 72s. per dozen.

reference, any quantity
will be forwarded imme-
BUTLER,
Street, W.,
g's-road,
(A.D. 1867.)

LADIES' LIGHT WATERPROOF SCOTCH AND SHETLAND CLOAKS in all the new colours and fabrics for the present season, also in the warmest Highland Hand-loom Fur Tweeds for cold countries and sea voyages. **LADIES' WATERPROOF JACKETS**, particularly adapted for Driving, Riding, and Yachting, in the most fashionable and useful shapes. **WATERPROOF LINSEY WOOLSEY DRESSES** and **PETTICOATS** for the present and Winter Seasons. **GENTLEMEN'S WATERPROOF SHOOTING, FISHING, and DRIVING CLOAKS, OVERCOATS, and JACKETS.** **SHETLAND and SCOTCH TWEEDS** in these natural, undyed Wools, and all the Heathers, Granites, Stone, Lovats, Bowater, Balmoral, Coigah, and other well-known mixed colours and patterns. Also, **GENTLEMEN'S SCOTCH MAUDS**, 28s. 6d. each, sufficient in each to make the Suit in these colours for Shooting, Fishing, &c.

SCOTT ADIE,

115 AND 115A, REGENT-STREET.
ENTRANCE AT CORNER OF VIGO-STREET.

FAMILY MOURNING.

MESSRS. JAY respectfully announce that **GREAT SAVING** may be made by **PURCHASING MOURNING** at their Establishment. The Stock of Family Mourning is the largest in Europe. Mourning Costume of every description is kept Ready Made, and can be forwarded in Town or Country at a moment's notice. The most Reasonable Prices are charged, and the Wear of every Article guaranteed.

LONDON GENERAL MOURNING WAREHOUSE,

Nos. 247, 249, and 251, REGENT STREET.

JAY'S.

GUSH AND FERGUSON'S

CELEBRATED

CARTES DE VISITE, OR ALBUM PORTRAITS.

TWENTY-FOUR FOR ONE GUINEA.

GALLERY, 179, REGENT-STREET, W.

INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION, CLASS XXXI, No. 6,105.

HOBBS'S CHANGEABLE KEY BANK LOCK,

Price £10 and upwards.

HOBBS'S PATENT PROTECTOR LOCKS,

8s. and upwards.

HOBBS'S MACHINE-MADE LEVER LOCKS,

2s. and upwards.

The Machine-made Locks are adapted for every purpose for which Locks are required at prices that defy competition.

Illustrated Lists of Locks, Iron Safes, and Doors, Cash Boxes, &c., sent free on application to

HOBBS & CO. 76, CHEAPSIDE, LONDON, E.C.

Adopted by the Governments of Great Britain, Spain, Denmark, Russia, Brazil, East and West Indies, and the British Colonies.

EASTON'S PATENT BOILER FLUID,

FOR REMOVING AND PREVENTING

INCRUSTATION IN STEAM BOILERS,
LAND AND MARINE.

P. S. EASTON AND G. SPRINGFIELD,

PATENTEES AND SOLE MANUFACTURERS,

37, 38, & 39, WAPPING WALL, LONDON, E.

VINTAGE WINE COMPANY.

IMPORTERS OF SPANISH WINES.

Best wine at the price ever imported.

Xeres Comida Sherry, 18s. and 20s. per dozen.

Pure, sound, and palatable. See 300 opinions of the press.

Samples for 1s. 6d.

VINTAGE WINE COMPANY,

14, Bloomsbury-street, London.

THE NEW PATENT DOUBLE-REFLECT- ING EAR TRUMPET.

By **JOHN MARSHALL, Esq., F.R.S.**

ELLIOTT, BROTHERS, 30, Strand, London.

GLENFIELD PATENT STARCH, used in

the Royal Laundry, and pronounced by Her Majesty's
Laundress to be the finest Starch she ever used.—Sold by all
Chandlers, Grocers, &c. &c.

WOTHERSPOON & CO., Glasgow and London.

MORTLOCK'S CHINA WAREHOUSE,

250, OXFORD-STREET. China Dinner, Dessert,
Breakfast, and Tea Services, at a great reduction for CASH, in
consequence of the expiration of the Lease.

250, OXFORD-STREET, near Hyde Park.

CHINA, GLASS, AND EARTHENWARE,

34, Old Bond-street.—The whole of the Stock of the
late **THOMAS COUNTRY**, consisting of Breakfast, Dinner, Tea,
Dessert, and Chamber Services, Table-glass, and Ornaments.
To be absolutely sold at a great sacrifice.

REVOLVING SAFETY SHUTTERS FOR

PRIVATE HOUSES, defying the burglar to open them,
at greatly reduced prices; manufactured in one sheet of steel,
at 3s. 6d. per foot, super.; in iron, 3s. per foot.

The Builder says,—"Messrs. Clark & Co., of 15, Gate-street,
Lincoln's-inn-fields, have recently introduced a New Self-coiling
Revolving Shutter, for which they have obtained Royal
Letters Patent, which, in addition to being one-half the ex-
pense, has the advantage of being remarkably simple, and con-
sequently less liable to get out of order. All the complicated
gearing apparatus is dispensed with; there are neither wheels,
shafts, rollers, cords, nor weights to become deranged.

"We are disposed to think they will be largely used, both for
shop-fronts and private houses. Much of the difficulty now
often found in providing shutters for large bow windows may
be obviated by their use without extra cost."

Prospectuses, with full-sized sections, sent post free, with
numerous testimonials.

CLARK & CO., ENGINEERS,

15, Gate-street, Lincoln's-inn-Fields, London.

RIDDELL'S PATENT SLOW-COMBUS-

TION COTTAGE BOILER, for Heating Conservatories,
Entrance Halls, Baths, &c., by the circulation of hot water.
Requires no brickwork setting, will keep in action from twelve
to eighteen hours without attention, at the expense of about
threepence per day; is perfectly safe, requires no additional
building, and may be seen in operation daily at the

PATENTEE'S WAREHOUSE,

155, CHEAPSIDE, LONDON.

Price complete, from £3. 10s.

Illustrated Prospectus free, and Estimates prepared for
erecting Hot Water Apparatus of any magnitude.

WHITE AND SOUND TEETH are indis-
pensable to personal attraction, and to health and
longevity by the proper mastication of food.

ROWLANDS' ODONTO,
or Pearl Dentifrice,

preserves and imparts a pearl-like whiteness to the Teeth,
eradicates Tartar and Spots of Incipient Decay, strengthens
the Gums, and gives a delicate fragrance to the Breath.
Price 2s. 9d. per box. Sold at 20, Hatton-garden, and by
Chemists and Perfumers.

* Ask for "ROWLANDS' ODONTO."

D R. DE JONGH'S

(Knight of the Order of Leopold of Belgium)

LIGHT-BROWN COD LIVER OIL,
prescribed by the most eminent Medical Men as the
safest, speediest, and most effectual remedy for
CONSUMPTION, CHRONIC BRONCHITIS, ASTHMA, COUGHS,
RHEUMATISM, GENERAL DEBILITY, DISEASES OF
THE SKIN, RICKETS, INFANTILE WASTING,
AND ALL SCROFULOUS AFFECTIONS,
Is incomparably superior to every other kind.

SELECT MEDICAL OPINIONS

Sir HENRY MARSH, Bart., M.D.,

Physician in Ordinary to the Queen in Ireland.

"I consider Dr. De Jongh's Light-Brown Cod Liver Oil to
be a very pure Oil, not likely to create disgust, and a thera-
peutic agent of great value."

Dr. LANKESTER, F.R.S.,

Scientific Superintendent, South Kensington Museum.

"I consider the Cod Liver Oil sold under Dr. De Jongh's
guarantee to be preferable to any other kind as regards
genuineness and medicinal efficacy."

Dr. GRANVILLE, F.R.S.,

Author of the "Spas of Germany."

"Dr. Granville has found that Dr. De Jongh's Light-Brown
Cod Liver Oil produces the desired effect in a shorter time
than other kinds, and that it does not cause the nausea and
indigestion too often consequent on the administration of the
Pale Oil."

Dr. LAWRENCE,

Physician to H.R.H. the Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

"I invariably prescribe Dr. De Jongh's Cod Liver Oil in
preference to any other, feeling assured that I am recommend-
ing a genuine article, AND NOT A MANUFACTURED COMPOUND
IN WHICH THE EFFICACY OF THIS INVALUABLE MEDICINE IS
DESTROYED."

Dr. De JONGH'S LIGHT-BROWN COD LIVER OIL is sold
only in IMPERIAL Half-pints, 2s. 6d.; Pints, 4s. 9d.;
Quarts, 9s.; capsuled, and labelled with his stamp and signa-
ture, WITHOUT WHICH NONE CAN POSSIBLY BE GENUINE, by
respectable Chemists and Druggists.

SOLE CONSIGNEES:

ANSAR, HARFORD, & Co., 77, Strand, London, W.C.

CAUTION.—Beware of Proposed Substitutions.

DINNEFORD'S PURE FLUID MAGNESIA

has been, during twenty-five years, emphatically sanc-
tioned by the medical profession, and universally accepted by
the public, as the best remedy for acidity of the stomach,
heartburn, headache, gout, and indigestion, and as a mild
aperient for delicate constitutions, more especially for ladies
and children. It is prepared, in a state of perfect purity and
uniform strength, only by **DINNEFORD & CO., 172, New
Bond-street, London;** and sold by all respectable Chemists
throughout the world.

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The same experience, in reference to the various growths of coffee, and the advantages of a large selection of the finest kinds, have obtained for us a similarly high reputation in this respect. The description drunk at the Queen's is the richest mountain-flavoured coffee, possessing an aroma and flavour which can only be appreciated by use.

The Royal Osborne Mixture, being composed of the finest and most delicate teas, contains a very large proportion of this thein, or nerve-sustaining substance; and this mixture is so admirably adapted to the peculiar properties of the water in various localities, that it has achieved a reputation unattained by any other mixture or description of tea.

Numerous experiments have been tried by our most eminent chymists with this white powder, or thein, to ascertain the nature of its action upon the human body, which have resulted in the disclosure of the following facts:—When taken in proper quantities, it has a most wonderful sustaining power, enabling the food which is taken with it to go one-fourth part as far again in supporting the strength of the body, as it would without the addition. If a healthy man be in the habit of eating two pounds of bread during the day, by taking half an ounce of the mixture (which contains, as we before said, upwards of three grains of this powder), he would be enabled to do with half a pound less bread, and yet be a considerable gainer by the exchange, in supporting the bulk and weight of his body, and decreasing its requirement of solid food. At the same time it cheers and enlivens, and is even more adapted to supply the substance which the nerves and brain lose by wear and tear, than to diminish the loss the flesh undergoes from the same cause. It is a nerve-sustaining, rather than a flesh-making substance; and while it materially lessens the waste by wear and tear, it promotes the activity of most of the vital functions.

Tea is the subject of considerable adulteration; black tea is imitated by sloe, ash, and elder leaves, rolled and twisted, and then dyed with log-wood or some salt of iron. This spurious tea is not, perhaps, absolutely injurious to health; but the colouring material for imitating green tea is exceedingly dangerous; verdigris, or carbonate of copper, has been employed for this purpose, and it is a deadly poison. The consumer, however, may easily avoid this fraud by obtaining his supplies from old-established and reliable sources, who would not vend an inferior or deleterious article at the risk of their reputation, nor for the sake of cheapness sacrifice quality. There is one leading and indisputable fact especially deserving the attention of the tea drinker—viz., that tea improves by age, and that many of its specially invigorating and beneficial qualities depend upon and are imparted by this very keeping. When the right of the sale of tea was exclusively enjoyed by the Hon. the East-India Company, they invariably kept their teas in store for two years after their arrival at the port of London, and never, under any pretence, permitted its issue to the public at an earlier period. The reason for this precaution is obvious. The tea leaf, when new, is an active narcotic, and exerts a powerful intoxicating influence: consequently the Chinese rarely use the plant until it is a year old at the very least, when the volatile ingredients have lost that predominant influence, and merged or blended themselves with the other properties. But what the East India Company accomplished by long keeping (and that only partially), we achieve much more effectually, and in nearly one-fourth part of the time, by the various processes involved in this patent. In short, the imperfectly dried and defective leaves—the presence of which causes so much injury to the system—are removed, and a new and valuable property imparted to the tea, that mellowness and fragrance which nothing but age, and careful, skilful selection and manipulation can possibly give. In the first instance the most delicate and earliest growths of the finest descriptions of tea having been mixed in their various proportions, the whole bulk is, after being cleared of all moist or defective leaves, or foreign substances, subjected to the processes involved in the patent, by means of which it is transformed into a beverage which exhilarates without intoxicating, which excites the brain to increased activity, and produces wakefulness on the one hand, while, on the other hand, it stills and soothes the vascular system—hence its use in inflammatory diseases, and as a cure for headache. In a word, the processes and preparation now protected by Royal Letters Patent give the tea subjected to its operation a character and property peculiar to itself—viz., that of a restorative, invigorating, and cheering beverage, divested of all that acrid, nauseous, and narcotic influence which characterises the new tea, and renders the infusion known as the Royal Osborne Mixture indispensable in every household as a beverage, food, or medicine.

Having enumerated the particular processes which the tea-leaf undergoes before it comes into the consumer's hands, and the various qualities, with their properties, we will now attempt to elucidate the, to many people, unfathomable mystery.

HOW TO OBTAIN A GOOD CUP OF TEA.

The first and most essential requisite in the concoction of this favourite beverage, so that it shall contain the fragrance and invigorating influence which it so largely possesses, is the assimilation and admixture of the various descriptions to the nature and properties of the water used in its infusion. The want of this is the true cause of nine tenths of the disappointments and failures which occur in this respect. If the water be hard, the quantities of the fragrant and strong descriptions producing the stimulating principle, "Thein," must differ from those used with a soft water. Again, many springs contain active mineral properties, which, if not duly borne in mind and counteracted, would prove injurious instead of conducive to health. To accomplish this adaptation effectually, the person must not only possess great resources, and an intimate knowledge of the properties and physical action of the several descriptions of tea in combination on the human frame, and also of the counteracting or assimilating properties of the water in various provincial, suburban, and metropolitan districts; the solvent properties of water are greatly diminished by the solid substances dissolved in it, such as sulphate lime, &c., which exist in hard water. These are not removed by boiling, but their injurious action may be obviated, and the true properties of the leaf developed, by sending us a description or sample of the kind of water, whereby we should be enabled, by analysis, to assimilate the several proportions of our admixture to the special properties of the water; but he must have acquired such an amount of practical and scientific experience, that no private person, nor any one unconnected with the wholesale tea trade, could reasonably be expected to have attained. For this reason, and with this sole object in view, Messrs. FRANKS, SON, & CO. have decided on departing from their usual custom of confining the issue of their high-class teas to the trade, and have determined on affording the nobility, gentry, and clergy of the United Kingdom, and all great

consumers of tea, an opportunity of obtaining an article which, for exquisite flavour, intrinsic excellence, and aromatic fragrance and nutrition, is unparalleled. Having been in constant use at the Queen's Hotel, Upper Norwood, for upwards of eight years, and honoured by the approval of the numerous members of the nobility and gentry who, through this medium, have become cognisant of its inestimable qualities, it has achieved a reputation and notoriety only equalled by its merits. They intend, accordingly, to appoint agents for the sale of this delicious mixture in every important town in the provinces, and have also made arrangements for the transmission of orders to any railway stations in Great Britain, free of expense. As a proof of its purity and sustaining and invigorating properties, we respectfully draw the attention of our readers to the annexed testimonials from the most eminent analytical chymists of the day:—

Report on the Patent of James Franks's Royal Osborne Mixture of Teas, by Dr. A. H. Hassall, F.R.S.

From the perusal of the specification of the patent of James Franks, it is obvious that several circumstances contribute to the excellence of these teas.

First.—The care with which they are originally selected, and the subsequent removal of all damaged or withered leaves.

Secondly.—The kinds of tea which enter into the composition of the several mixtures, and the proportion in which they are mixed.

Thirdly.—The cautious drying of the teas, by which superfluous moisture is got rid of, the teas being thereby rendered not only stronger but keeping much better. A pound of tea thus dried must evidently go further than a pound of ordinary tea.

Fourthly.—The subjection of the teas for a lengthened period to a warm, dry atmosphere, whereby they are mellowed and their full aroma brought out.

Fifthly.—The storage of the teas in tin cases, volatilization of the active constituents being thus prevented.

The Object and Results of the Patent granted to James Franks.

It may not be generally known that the Chinese coat all the teas exported by them with a certain colouring matter, for the purpose of protecting the leaf from injury or depreciation during the voyage; the higher quality teas being but lightly coated, while the lower quality teas are much more thickly overlaid (to keep in the little quality they possess). The new tea also, when imported, possesses a peculiarly narcotic and intoxicating property, producing giddiness and other effects similar to that produced by opium on the recipient (a fact borne out by the evidence of our most eminent analytical chymists). The processes and operations now patented not only remove this coating from the leaf and preserve the strength and aromatic flavour of the tea, but, by imparting to it the qualities of age, divest it of all this narcotic and intoxicating tendency, and give it a mellowness and ripeness obtainable by no other process whatever.

Certificates of the most eminent Analytical Chymists of the day.

From PROFESSOR BRANDE.

London, April 13, 1861.

The average composition of the soluble portion of these teas is:—

Volatile oil and thein	7.5
Tannin and extractive	75.0
Mucilage	17.5
	100.0

I have only to add that the odour and flavour of the teas are unexceptionable.

Yours faithfully,

Messrs. Franks & Co.

WM. THOS. BRANDE.

Chymical and Microscopical Laboratory, 74, Wimpole-street, Cavendish-square, W., 25th March, 1861.

Report on the Teas of Messrs. Franks, Son, & Co., by Dr. Hassall.

I have submitted to careful microscopical examination and chymical analysis the several qualities of mixed black and green tea brought by Messrs. Franks, Son, & Co. before the notice of the public under the name of "The Royal Osborne Mixture of Teas."

I find the black mixed teas to be perfectly genuine, to be carefully selected from the choicest kinds, and to be of very superior quality and flavour.

The No. 1 Mixture, freed from moisture, furnished 35.4 per cent. of gum, tannin, volatile oil, and of the alkaloid termed Thein; upon the three last-named of which the action and properties of tea mainly depend. The No. 2 Mixture yielded 36.6 per cent. of these substances. These proportions are considerably in excess of those furnished by ordinary black teas. The green teas I likewise found to be of excellent quality. They consisted entirely of the young and tender leaves of the tea plant, the infusion furnished by them being fragrant, of delicious flavour, and possessing in a marked degree the refreshing and invigorating properties for which good teas are so remarkable.

The proportion of extractive in the No. 3 Mixture was 46.2 per cent., while in the No. 4 Mixture it amounted to 43.5 per cent., an indication in itself sufficient of the quality of these teas. The notion of adapting the kind and quality of the tea to the nature of the water used is a good and practical one. (Signed)

ARTHUR HILL HASSALL, M.D., London, Analyst of "The Lancet Sanitary Commission;" Author of "Food and its Adulterations;" "Adulterations Detected," and other works.

Any fraudulent imitation of this mixture, of the trade mark, or of the package in which it is contained, is an infringement of the Act under which the Royal Osborne Mixture is patented. Every package issued will bear our signature and seal.

More minute details of its preparation, properties, &c., may be obtained on application at the patentees' warehouses as above.

It will thus be seen that the peculiar fragrant and nutritive properties possessed by these teas as a result of the special processes through which they pass, are not to be obtained in any other preparation.

TARIFF OF PRICES.

TEAS.

The Royal Osborne Mixture of Teas (under Royal Letters Patent), No. 1. This delicious mixture is composed of a variety of the choicest Black Teas from the early gathering of Souchong, Flowery Pekoe, Congou, and Assam Teas—4s. per lb.

The Royal Osborne Mixture of Teas (under Royal Letters Patent), No. 2. Composed of the early buds of Souchong, Pekoe, strong Congou, and Assam. This is the highest class of teas—5s. per lb.

Howqua's Mixture, finest—5s. per lb.

Fine Congou, blackish leaf, strong—3s. 6d.

GREEN TEAS.

The Royal Osborne Mixture of Green Teas (under Royal Letters Patent), No. 3. Composed of finest Picked Gunpowder, mixed with the buds of Cowslip Hyson—5s. to 6s. 6d. per lb.

The Royal Osborne Mixture of Green Teas (under Royal Letters Patent) No. 4. The finest Hyson, mixed with the first growth of Young Hyson—5s. to 6s. per lb.

The Treatise on Tea will be given to all purchasers.

Arrangements have been made to transmit all packages of Tea, Coffee, or Cocoa of 6 lbs. weight and upwards to any railway station in the United Kingdom carriage free. Delivery within six miles daily. One pound samples forwarded on application.

It is respectfully requested that one day's notice to deliver orders should be given.

Terms—Cash. Post-office orders made payable to FRANKS, SON, & CO.

BANKERS.—Messrs. Hankey, Fenchurch-street.

P.S.—One Pound Samples of any of these Teas may be obtained on application at the warehouses.

FRANKS, SON, & CO., 14, LITTLE TOWER-STREET, CITY.

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